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ABSTRACT

This volume of articles is a report from the national teacher in-service development program in teaching content through a foreign language at the Continuing Education Centre of the University of Jyvaskyla, Finland. This publication is mainly in English, because of the basic rationale of the Teaching Content through English (TCE) programme, and because dissemination of information on this approach is not only for educators and administrators in Finland, but also for those in other European countries, where bilingual education and its development continue to be of increasing interest. Articles in this volume include the following: "Language Learning and Bilingual Education: Theoretical Considerations and Practical Experiences" (Anne Rasanen); "Framework and Implementation of the Jyvaskyla TCE/TCFL Programmes" (David Marsh and Anne Rasanen); "The TCFL Network" (David Marsh); "Diploma of Proficiency in Teaching in English" (Sauli Takala); "Action Research in the Classroom" (Sauli Takala); "Teaching Content through a Foreign Language Is a Matter of School Development" (Viljo Kohonen); "Developing Language Teaching in Finland: Where Does Content-Based Language Teaching Fit?" (Sauli Takala). A final section, in Finnish, provides experience reports from the field. Teaching content through a foreign language is discussed for the elementary through college level. Also, in-service development programs in areas such as hotel-restaurant, domestic, and health care are discussed. (CK)

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Jyväskylän yliopiston
täydennyskoulutuskeskuksen
tutkimuksia ja selvityksiä 18

Reports from the
Continuing Education Centre
University of Jyväskylä, Finland
Research and Fieldwork No. 18

CONTENT INSTRUCTION THROUGH A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

A Report on the 1992–1993 TCE Programme

Anne Räsänen &
David Marsh (eds.)

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CONTENT INSTRUCTION THROUGH A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

A Report on the 1992-1993 TCE Programme

(A national teacher in-service development programme
for teaching content through English)

Anne Räsänen & David Marsh (eds.)

Jyväskylän yliopiston
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FOREWORD

Bilingual education, content-based foreign language instruction, and enhancement of cross-cultural knowledge and understanding are among the key focus areas in the development of the Finnish educational system of today, according to both the Ministry of Education and the National Board of Education. The 1993-1996 action plan of the Ministry states, for instance, that the aim is to have foreign-language content instruction at primary, secondary and upper secondary levels in all provinces of Finland by 1996. Furthermore, the aim is for 2 000 upper secondary school students to pursue studies or do work practice abroad. In vocational education, foreign language content instruction should be given in at least one quarter of the vocational institutions, and in all polytechnics by the year 1996. In addition, it is noted that participation in international exchange programmes can most effectively be increased through offering instruction through foreign languages.

Many practical measures have been taken to facilitate the development outlined above, for instance, school laws regarding languages of instruction in basic education were changed recently, support has been allocated to increase internationalization at educational institutions, and commissions and support geared at updating teacher in-service development for bilingual education. The decision-making powers regarding implementation of such programmes are in the hands of municipal school authorities, schools and institutions, as well as teachers themselves.

This volume of articles is a report from the national teacher in-service development programme in teaching content through a foreign language (TCE/TCFL Programme), which was started in 1992 at the Continuing Education Centre of the University of Jyväskylä. This first programme was sponsored by the National Board of Education and the Provincial Government of Central Finland. We would like to take this opportunity to express our appreciation for the financial and other support given by these agencies and their representatives over the past years. Work in this area will continue, and experimentation, action research information and experience on the Finnish learning and teaching context in this particular field of bilingual education is increasing so rapidly that giving actual up-to-date statistics is extremely difficult. For that reason only, the establishment of an information-sharing network is of the utmost importance.

This publication is mainly in English, because of the basic rationale of the TCE programme, and because dissemination of information on this approach is not only for educators and administrators in Finland, but also for those in other European countries, where bilingual education and its development continue to be of increasing interest.

Jyväskylä, March 1994 A.R. & D.M.

Vilho Hirvi
Director General
National Board of Education

Statement

BILINGUALISM - KEY TO INTERNATIONALISM

Language teaching, cross-cultural understanding, foreign-language content teaching, and other forms of instruction which are important from the point of view of increased international contacts and internationalization of the working life, are systematically supported and developed at all levels of the Finnish educational system. This statement is included in the 1991-1996 national development plan of education in Finland, and its guidelines are already reflected in the activities of the schools.

The recent amendments in the school laws concerning the languages in which instruction may be given, have met with great enthusiasm in the school world: content instruction through foreign languages is becoming more and more common at all educational levels, from the primary through to the vocational levels.

According to the plans of the Finnish Ministry of Education, content instruction through foreign languages will be given in the near future at all educational levels in at least one institution in each province. But this is not enough, because all university towns, as well as towns in which international companies are located, must cater for the new needs of both expatriate Finnish students and immigrant students.

Schools can implement bilingual programmes, if the decision-makers thus wish. The National Board of Education wants to make provisions for the quality of education and its continuity.

I would like to raise three important points here: curriculum planning, teaching resources, and teacher education.

Internationalization is one of the basic values of the new national curriculum. For the National Board, this means that we will take measures to support schools in their efforts to incorporate internationalization in their own curricula. New frameworks within which internationalization can also be promoted through bilingual/multilingual education will be established for the development and implementation of the school-specific curricula.

One practical way of promoting internationalization is international student exchange. In order to facilitate this development, school practices should become more flexible, and the needs of individual students should be taken into account in a more pronounced way. Reciprocity of student exchange means offering at least part of the school curriculum through languages other than Finnish. For vocational education, this principle of reciprocity also means increasing the amount of training and education leading to a vocational-level certificate.

Giving instruction through a foreign language is often expensive. Extra resources in terms of teachers' salaries, development and maintenance of professional expertise, and new kinds of materials needed for bilingual education, may easily result in considerable costs. Investment in these is, however, profitable in the long run, since these efforts will provide a future workforce, which is bilingual or multilingual, and possesses many kinds of new skills. In any case, it is important to consider how these extra costs are taken into account in both governmental and municipal decision-making.

The most crucial issue in implementing bilingual programmes is teacher education. The significance of the language proficiency level of the teachers involved in these programmes cannot be overestimated. We must develop such new alternatives and degree programmes for teacher education that they combine various disciplines and subjects with advanced studies in some foreign language. There are positive experiences of such solutions, for instance, in Germany.

In the immediate future, teachers should be able to widen their professional expertise in this field through continuing education programmes. Although each teacher is naturally responsible for his/her own professional development, it is also the responsibility of the society to make special provisions for facilitating this development, which is one of the prerequisites for internationalization.

The National Board of Education has in the past few years taken many steps to support the internationalization process of education, for instance, by purchasing training programmes from Britain and giving financial support to the Jyväskylä TCFL programme. Efforts will be taken in the near future to improve the opportunities for teachers' participation in various kinds of exchange programmes.

The National Board has also signed an agreement with the Continuing Education Centre of the University of Jyväskylä concerning dissemination and exchange of information on experimentation, materials, and evaluation in the field of foreign-language content instruction.

Foreign-language content instruction is at present mainly given in English and Swedish. We must make moves to widen this scope. Finns will in the future also need high-level proficiency and skills in Russian, German and French. Although we have a long experience of bilingualism on the official level, there is still a long way to go before all Finns have access to active and living bilingualism. I am convinced, however, that we have taken a step in the right direction.

Maija-Liisa Nikki
Vocational Education Counsellor and Senior Researcher
Provincial Government of Central Finland
and the University of Jyväskylä

Statement

THE TCE PROGRAMME AS A MEANS OF PROMOTING INTERNATIONALIZATION IN SCHOOLS AND VOCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS IN THE PROVINCE OF CENTRAL FINLAND

The Provincial Government of Central Finland is one of the most modern and up-to-date administrative offices in Finland. One of the reasons for that is that it was one of the first administrative offices in the experiment to adopt the system of management by objectives and results, which meant developing a totally new administrative culture. Because one of the targets set by the Education Department in 1990 was to promote internationalization of education within the Province, the Department started a project to find out how the schools and vocational institutions within the Province had taken into account the demands of internationalization. As we know, the basic prerequisite for internationalization is a sufficient command of foreign languages and willingness to use them. Therefore foreign language education in schools and vocational institutions should give students opportunities for their development.

At the same time, a nationwide investigation concerning foreign language education in vocational institutions (Nikki, M-L. 1993) showed that optional foreign languages were studied by very few students in vocational institutions, and, furthermore, the variety of foreign languages studied was very narrow. The same study showed that vocational institutions had several difficulties in arranging foreign language teaching. From all those facts, one could draw conclusions that students in vocational institutions did not obtain a foreign language ability which was at a sufficiently high level, in particular when considering their future employment.

During the project of internationalizing the education in schools and vocational institutions, the Education Department also hired a consultant who visited 46 firms and interviewed entrepreneurs and employers. This was done to survey their impressions and opinions on how internationalization influences their firms and the work there, and how the vocational institutions should take those demands into account when training workers and other personnel for them.

In the report based on the investigations, the survey of the consultant and results of other studies, the Education Department suggested measures to be taken in schools and vocational institutions to promote internationalization. One of them was to improve the effectiveness of foreign language teaching and to encourage students to study more optional languages. Several international research findings gave support to the idea that teaching content through a foreign language would promote the development of the students' language skills. Therefore, the Department approached the Continuing Education Centre of Jyväskylä University in autumn 1990 and suggested that the Centre would arrange a program for teachers to learn about content-based teaching in English.

The Continuing Education Centre accepted the idea. In 1991 the Education Department started, together with the Centre, to inform the schools and vocational institutions about the project, and invited principals and teachers who were interested in teaching content through English to obtain more information about the future program. Alhough two meetings were arranged, the overall impression was that too few teachers of vocational institutions in the Province were willing to enter the program. Because it is particularly important for the vocational institutions to support their students in strengthening their ability to use English, some further measures were taken to encourage the vocational institutions to send their teachers to the program. We held personal discussions with the principal of every vocational institution in the Province, in order to persuade them to send some of their teachers into the program. In addition, both the National Board of Education and the Provincial Government of Central Finland gave financial support to the program, and the Provincial Government directed its support (covering nearly half of all the program costs) especially for educating teachers in vocational institutions.

It is somehow contradictory that simultanously with these developments, another investigation showed that students were not very keen on getting content-based teaching in English. This investigation covered 477 students in upper secondary schools and 339 students in school and college level of commercial, technical and health care institutions all over the country. Half of the students in upper secondary schools and in commercial institutions and over half of the students in technical and health care institutions did not want content-based teaching in a foreign language. The most reluctant were students of health care institutions and school level students in technical institutions, where about 70 % of the students did not want content-based teaching in a foreign language. At that time students had only a few or no experiences of content-based teaching in English, because only one vocational institution in the Province of Central Finland was engaged in it in 1990. The reluctance might, thus, have been due to the fact that students lacked experience in content-based instruction, and the fact that they considered it too new or demanding for them.

We were very pleased to find that as many as 24 teachers of vocational institutions in Central Finland attended the first program started in Spring 1992. The atmosphere during the program was very pleasant and the participants were eager to learn about how to teach content through English. Every now and then one could even sense a kind of spirited enthusiasm in their studying.

At the end of 1993, the Education Department repeated the investigation on foreign language education and internationalization in vocational institutions in Central Finland (Nikki 1993). The number of students studying an optional foreign language had somewhat increased, but it was very encouraging to find out that in 11 of the 21 vocational institutions within the Province at least some amount of instruction was given in English to over 10 % of the students in those institutions. It was a good start! But in the future far more teachers should be encouraged to enter into programs of teaching content through a foreign language. That language should not only be English but also Swedish, German and even French and Russian, depending on the type of institution and the careers for which students are being trained. This means that more efforts are needed for promoting content-based teaching. The Continuing Education Centre has been very successful and has played, and will play, an important role in arranging programs which the participants are satisfied with. The Education Department also has every reason to be satisfied with having done its share in promoting internationalizing of education in schools and vocational institutions in Central Finland.

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LANGUAGE LEARNING AND BILINGUAL EDUCATION: THEORETICAL CONSIDERATIONS & PRACTICAL EXPERIENCES

1. Introduction

Finland has a long tradition in second/foreign language learning and teaching. Throughout this history, issues concerning the quality, efficiency and ease of communication and its teaching - be it in the mother tongue, Finnish, or in some other language - have continued to reign both in the public discussion and as educational concerns. Today, due to the extremely rapid increase of international contacts, the communication skills required in the Finnish society are at a level which presupposes high-level, active proficiency, which, in turn, naturally places ever-increasing demands on language teaching. Since the development of good productive skills in a second or foreign language requires a considerable amount of time, effort and experience, and the number of hours available for formal language teaching is quite modest, it has become necessary to search for new solutions, which could provide new opportunities for language learning. One such solution, already implemented to some extent, is bilingual education. From the many approaches which fall within its scope, we need to find the ones which would be most suitable for our particular learning and teaching context. Simultaneously, we need to gear teacher development programmes to cater for the new skills and knowledge needed in the implementation of bilingual programmes.

This article presents some of the theoretical considerations behind the Jyväskylä teacher in-service development programme in teaching content through a foreign language, as well as surveys some well-known, international experiences of bilingual education. The term **bilingual programme** is used here to refer to all variations of bilingual education and teaching of non-language subjects through the second/foreign language, from total immersion to short content-based courses (cf. Council of Europe Workshop 12 A conclusions below). Many questions and issues remain beyond the scope of this account, for instance, questions concerning teacher roles, teacher qualifications and forms of assessment. This is mainly because they are still questions on which relatively little research evidence exists for our context for the moment. (More information will, however, become available in the next few years from eg. the Council of Europe projects). Also, the extent of, and readiness for, change required from teachers and educational institutions in general at this moment in Finland, is such that developing any rigid systems and criteria for the implementation of bilingual programmes seems both unwise and premature. Instead, it is necessary to gain more experience and to consider what is already known - or not known - about second/foreign language learning, in order to clarify what kinds of factors come to play a role when we implement bilingual programmes in the Finnish context, and in what way the learners' opportunities for language development could be enhanced.

2. Language Learning and Bilingualism

The ultimate aim of second/foreign language learning and teaching is always some level of bilingualism, regardless of whether they occur under natural conditions (eg. a child learning two languages simultaneously) or more formal learning situations (eg. within a bilingual programme at school). Bilingualism, however, is a complex concept to define, and the inconsistency of the definitions available is clearly reflected in the research and theory of the field. Thus, some researchers restrict the use of the term to those individuals who have complete mastery of two languages, while others would talk about bilingualism even in cases where the individual has a minimal command of the second/foreign language. In addition to the *criterion of proficiency or competence level,* there are definitions that use the *criterion of age or origin,* those that concentrate on the *process of learning,* on the individual's *identification with the two languages,* or the *functions* which the two languages have in the individual's context and environment of language use (Cummins & Swain 1986; Skuttnabb-Kangas 1984). Furthermore, bilingualism is also a concept that is, to a large extent, culturally determined, ie. it is defined on the basis of the *status of the second/foreign language* in the community and society. Therefore, Finland is usually called a bilingual country, because Swedish has an official status here, although the question of whether Finns are bilingual in this respect remains controversial and is subject to interpretation. And when bilingualism is considered with respect to majority and minority languages without an official status, the concept becomes even more difficult and ambiguous in its definition (cf. Skuttnabb-Kangas 1990, Cummins 1981, 1992).

If we accept a broader view of the term bilingualism, for instance, "the production and/or comprehension of two languages by the same individual" (Cummins 1981), we can relatively safely claim that the aim of second/foreign language teaching in this context is to work towards bilingualism, regardless of what the language in question is. But in Finland, for instance, the knowledge of languages is measured by school-specific or national school-leaving examinations, administered at various levels of the school career, which means that the crucial criterion in language learning and teaching in our context is the issue of proficiency level. For this reason, we must carefully consider the question of what it means to "know" a language.

"Knowing" a language means different things to different people. The criteria for this are established by both the individuals themselves and the cultural environment within which they operate. In Finland, we have rather high, even unrealistic, criteria for when an individual would say that s/he "knows" the language in question.

Many research studies (eg. Sallinen-Kuparinen 1986, Lehtonen & Sajavaara 1985) show that Finns tend to regard the ability to speak the language fluently and articulately as the main indicator of language proficiency in both the mother tongue and in the foreign language. Thus, a Finn who has studied English or some other language for eight years might still give a negative answer to a foreigner's question "do you speak English/German etc.", because s/he might not feel comfortable with, or in total command of, the situation of language use. In some other cultures, elementary level knowledge of the foreign language would produce a positive answer. This is our overall language learning context, and, as teachers we might not even be aware of the internalized language learning theories that affect our actions of teaching and learning. There are naturally many individual differences, but it is important to bear in mind that all the participants of the learning/teaching context come to this context with certain, preconceived ideas of how learning and teaching occur, and that these ideas bear upon the perceived efficiency and success of the learning and teaching process. Depending on our own or perceived experiences of the learning process, we see certain pedagogical solutions as "good" and discard others, because they have not worked. Reflection on these issues is therefore of great importance, because the experiences of the learner and the teacher might not always coincide, which can cause delays, frustration, and even blockages, in the learning process.

These individual "learning theories" do not, of course, only concern language learning. There are studies that indicate the existence of such theories in many other disciplines and subjects, as if the conceptual frameworks of these *various disciplines* were somewhat predestined to *generate the use of certain types of learning theories* (for a review, cf. eg. Leino & Leino 1990, Kolb 1984). This implies that teachers of different subjects come to the teaching situations with somewhat different ideas of how that particular subject is most successfully learned and taught, which is reflected in their pedagogical approaches. Recent research on (language) learning strategies (cf. O'Malley & Chamot 1990, Oxford 1990) also seems to indicate that *different disciplines require the use and development of different types of cognitive and metacognitive strategies, as well as different language learning strategies, particularly in contexts where the subject matter or content is being learned through the second/foreign language.* Thus, the teaching of non-language subjects in this way means that the teachers in question should become aware and knowledgeable of the underlying factors of such a teaching and learning situation. They must know something about what constitutes the process of language learning in the situation where they are teaching their own subjects through a foreign language.

3. Process of Language Learning

Language learning has been extremely widely studied, particularly over the past 30 years or so (for a review, cf. Ellis 1985, 1992, Larsen-Freeman & Long 1991). The theoretical frameworks, within which these studies have been carried out, reflect the development and focus areas of the general learning theory, the moves from the behavioural to the cognitive view of learning, from product to process, from description to explanation. After the research findings on the first language acquisition process (cf. eg. Dulay & Burt 1974) of the 1970's, and Krashen's (1982, 1985) influential acquisition/learning hypotheses, research into second/foreign language learning has concentrated more clearly on theory-formation in the field. Earlier studies mainly aimed at enquiry for the sake of application, for example, for the development of language teaching. Today there are hundreds of thousands of pages of *research regarding language learning*, addressing the crucial questions of "who is learning what under which conditions and why". The studies range from *learner-centred* (eg. cognitive, affective, biological factors, etc.) and *learning-centred* (ie. relating to the actual process of learning) aspects of language learning, to *language-centred* (eg. interlanguage, language universals, communicative competence, etc.) and *culture-centred* (eg. majority vs. minority language learning, bilingualism, language maintenance, inter-cultural or cross-cultural communication, language planning and policy, etc.). And naturally there are also studies which have application as their starting point, such as those concerned with learning (and acquisition) in the classroom, role of self-directiveness and self-assessment, learning how to learn, and development of new pedagocial approaches and alternative assessment forms (Räsänen 1993).

Although the actual process of language learning can only be studied rather indirectly, there is quite a lot of reliable information already available on language learning. We know for certain that this process is an extremely complex one - a process in which many factors play an important role, as is evident from the abundance and variety of research in the areas involved (for a review, cf. Larsen-Freeman & Long 1991). In addition to cognitive factors, then, at least biological, affective and socio-cultural factors, as well as the learners' previous experiences contribute to the success of the language learning process. Depending on the theoretical starting-point, learning is seen as an outcome of the interplay of two or more factors, or, as is the case with the wholistic approach, of all these factors. For instance, the research focussed on individual learning styles and strategies is mainly based on concepts derived from cognitive psychology, whereas the studies made on the "good" language learner show evidence of a more integrated, or experiential, theory.

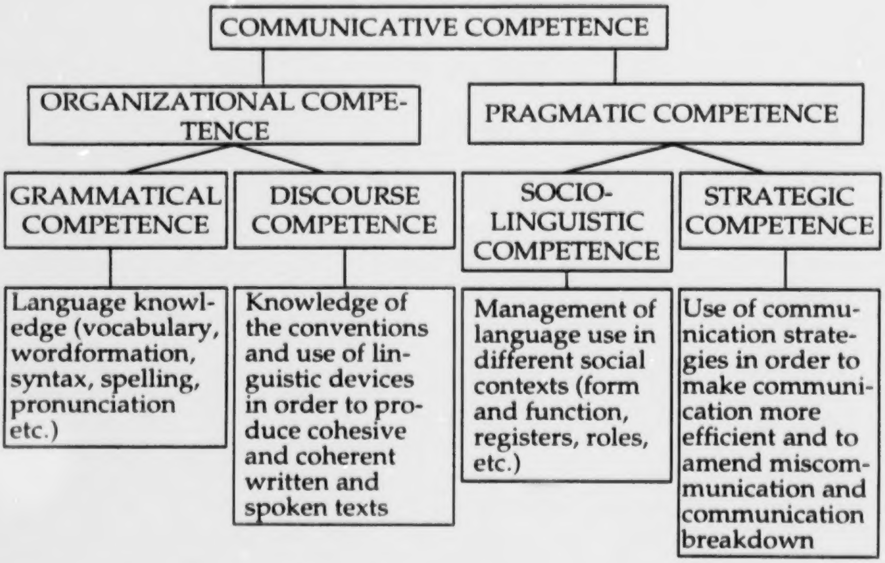
Language learning is a cognitive and a social phenomenon, ie. it presupposes cognitive processing of input and real-life testing of the hypotheses formed. Whether this processing occurs automatically or consciously depends on several factors, such as what kinds of experiences the learner has of various learning tasks, how complicated s/he perceives the task at hand, what kind of a personal learner image s/he has, what kinds of personal aims he/she has, and what his/her cognitive capacity is. On the basis of these kinds of factors the learner approaches the learning task, and adopts the strategy s/he thinks will work in the context. According to research findings (eg. Naiman et al.1978, Wenden & Rubin 1987 & 1991, Oxford 1990, Ellis 1992), a "good" language learner has a reservoir of strategies available, from among which s/he will select the most appropriate one. The existence of this reservoir, as well as flexibility in its use, then, depends on his/her previous learning experiences (Skehan 1989, however, refers to this as language learning aptitude), and that is where the teacher is in a key position to help. When learning is seen as learner growth in this way, language learning would mean learner development in three different, but interconnected areas of knowledge, skills and awareness, namely, development of own learner image (personal awareness), of the learning process (metacognitive awareness), and of the learning task (task awareness, ie. language and communication), (Kohonen 1992; 1994, this volume).

A crucial issue in language learning is the *concept of proficiency*, because the definition given to it determines, to a considerable extent, how language learning is viewed, how success is measured and how teaching is arranged. From the point of view of the learning process, language proficiency includes analysis of linguistic knowledge and monitoring of linguistic processing. These are components of the cognitive mechanism underlying learning, organization of information and problem-solving, and this mechanism is responsible for both mother tongue learning and the learning of other, subsequent, languages. Second/foreign language learning is, in fact, often seen as a continuation of first language learning in the sense that these different languages have the same cognitive basis ("interdependence hypothesis", cf. Cummins 1979, Cummins & Swain 1986; Bialystok 1991). In other words, it seems that certain cognitive skills are transferrable from one language to another (eg. if you know how to read in one language, you can read - but not necessarily understand - in another language, provided that the alphabet is recognizable; or, if you know how to ride a red bike, you can also ride a blue bike). Thus, for instance, many studies on bilingualism show that an older and more experienced learner is more effective in his/her later language studies (ie. within the same time and similar exposure, s/he will reach a higher level of overall proficiency in the second language), because certain cognitive prerequisites have already been fulfilled in connection with first language learning (Cummins & Swain 1986). This view is often presented as the basis for arguments concerning solid mother tongue knowledge and skills, particularly in connection with minority language education. The new language input, thus, represents a collection of new surface forms, which the experienced learner attempts to organize into a coherent framework and collection of "rules" to be tested and verified. These rules refer to both formal language knowledge and conventions of language use, ie. to what is often called the communicative language competence, which is another way of looking at language proficiency.

4. Components of Language (Communicative) Competence

There are many views and theories about communicative competence and about what kinds of factors and components are involved in it. There are also so many different names used for these components that it would be impossible here to give an account of even half of them. Suffice it to say that from the point of view of teaching through a foreign language, what seems to be crucial for the development of communicative competence in a second/foreign language is that *provisions should ideally be made in the teaching process to facilitate the development of both formal knowledge of the language system and pragmatic knowledge of how this system can be used in real-life situations.* This means in practice that formal language teaching should systematically accompany the teaching of content through a second/foreign language, a point which has been clearly shown by the immersion experiments in Canada (cf. eg. Swain 1991, Baetens Beardsmore 1993).

Perhaps the most influential representation of communicative competence was made by Canale and Swain in 1980 (elaborated in Canale 1983; for a review cf. Huhta 1993). We return here to the question of what it means to "know" a language, ie. what language competence involves. Bachman (1990), in fact, uses this latter term in his considerations about language testing. On the basis of these views, it is possible to illustrate the components of communicative language competence in the following way:


COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE
ORGANIZATIONAL COMPETENCE
PRAGMATIC COMPETENCE
GRAMMATICAL COMPETENCE
DISCOURSE COMPETENCE
SOCIO-LINGUISTIC COMPETENCE
STRATEGIC COMPETENCE
Language knowledge (vocabulary, wordformation, syntax, spelling, pronunciation etc.)
Knowledge of the conventions and use of linguistic devices in order to produce cohesive and coherent written and spoken texts
Management of language use in different social contexts (form and function, registers, roles, etc.)
Use of communication strategies in order to make communication more efficient and to amend miscommunication and communication breakdown

(adapted from Canale & Swain 1980, Canale 1983, Bachman 1990)

More recently, it has become common to also talk about *cultural competence or cultural literacy* as a separate category to the above. This view refers to the significance and manifestation of cross- and intercultural communication differences and similarities between nationalities and representatives of nationalities. It is true that internationalization and rapid increase of international contacts have contributed to the fact that advanced knowledge and skills required by situations of intercultural interaction have become a necessary aim for language teaching at all levels. Awareness of, and sensitivity to, the similarities and differences manifested by these situations will facilitate the growth of international understanding and cultural tolerance, as well as contribute to the self-confidence and national and cultural identification of the second/foreign language users.

5. Bilingual Education and Bilingual Programmes

In this article, the broad view, presented at a recent Council of Europe workshop on teaching non-language subjects through a foreign language (C of E workshop, Soest 1993), of which programmes could be called bilingual programmes, has been used. Thus, any programme which involves teaching content matter through a second or foreign language is a bilingual programme, regardless of its form, pedagogical approach, proportion of teaching done in the mother tongue, etc. This is naturally based on the assumption presented above, namely that the ultimate aim of second and foreign language teaching and learning is to reach at least some level of bilingualism. Again, due to the complexity of the concept of bilingualism, it is worth bearing in mind that bilingualism here is interpreted in its broad, although not the broadest (ie. minimal knowledge of L2), sense.

There is a very wide range of bilingual programmes offered around the world. In fact, teaching subject matter or content, as it is also often called, through a second or foreign language is by no means some recent development, but dates back far to the history of education. The attempts to establish a "lingua franca", or to help immigrants and minority groups to adapt themselves to new societies and cultures, or to enhance the second or foreign language competence of minority and majority language speakers, are all examples of bilingual education. Over the past 30 years or so, however, as distances between countries and continents have shrunk due to advanced technology, and contacts between people from around the world become more frequent, the role of language and communication in these new contexts has increased in its importance within the frameworks of educational policies. New models have been developed to suit the purposes and needs of communities and societies.

Because of the fact that a new "model" is needed for any specific situation in order for it to serve the community in an appropriate way, the programmes established around the world use many different names and also differ in their approaches and theoretical foundations. Thus, for instance in Finland, teaching non-language subjects through a foreign language is in public and educational discussion referred to at least as (some terms are direct translations from Finnish) **immersion** (kielikylpy), **foreign language content instruction** (vieraskielinen aineenopetus), **content-based language instruction** (sisältöpainotteinen kielenopetus), **extended language instruction or language-enhanced content instruction** (kielipainotteinen aineenopetus). Because of this variety in terminology, it is perhaps useful to consider the issue of teaching non-language subjects through a foreign language in Finland within the conceptualizations of well-established bilingual education models around the world. We will start by looking briefly at some "prototype" models from North America (for a review, cf. eg. Padilla et al. 1990), namely the immersion model and the content-based language teaching model, and proceed to discussing models developed for the European context.

The Immersion Model

he first French immersion programme aimed at English-speaking children in Quebec, Canada, was started in 1965 on the initiative of parents. Within two decades immersion became a mass educational movement all across Canada, where over quarter of a million Canadian children in all provinces were receiving a large part or all of their school instruction through a second language. This instruction follows different immersion formats, and involves both French (or English) and several heritage languages. Since the 1971 introduction of the Spanish immersion programme in California, immersion-type approaches to second and foreign language instruction have also spread throughout the United States as alternatives to traditional formal foreign language teaching programmes (Brinton et al. 1989).

In general, the immersion programmes can be divided into the following three types:

* **Early total immersion programmes**, in which the pupils are taught entirely through the second language (L2), starting from kindergarten, and the mother tongue (L1) is introduced in grade 2, 3 or 4 (North-American educational system). The amount of instruction in the mother tongue is, then, gradually increased until by grade 6, 7 or 8, approximately half of the instruction is given in L1 and half in L2.

* **Early partial immersion programme** is an approach in which the pupils receive 50 % of their instruction through the L2, starting in kindergarten and continuing up to grade 8.

* In **late immersion** at least 50 % of the instruction is given in L2, beginning anywhere in grade 6 to 8. These pupils should have at least one year of formal studies in the second language before starting. (Lapkin et al. 1983).

The immersion model has been carefully researched, and the results with language majority children are very good, which makes it a viable alternative also for foreign language teaching. *The language itself is largely learned incidentally through the use of the second language as a medium of instruction.* By the end of the elementary school, *early immersion* students have usually developed a *functional bilinguality in L2,* at least as regards receptive skills. In many subjects they perform even better than students who have received monolingual instruction, indicating *greater awareness and development of academic skills.* After the introduction of the mother tongue into the curriculum, their literacy-related skills in this language quickly surpass those achieved by comparison groups in monolingual programmes. Their L1 development is, thus, not endangered by the fact that instruction is given in L2. A considerable amount of transfer from L2 to L1 seems to take place quite naturally in these programmes. (Cummins & Swain 1986; Lambert 1990).

As regards *late immersion* programmes, the results are quite similar, indicating, however, that *older learners seem to be more effective* than younger ones in some aspects of L2 learning (*usually excluding phonology*). This is particularly clear in the development of literacy-related skills and academic skills, and gives further evidence of the transfer of skills from one language to another. The results of the immersion programmes also suggest that young learners benefit more from literacy skills being developed in one language only at a time, because the different surface structures of the languages may unnecessarily delay the development of the basic cognitive skill. Although slight delays at the beginning of the programmes are quite common particularly in late immersion (due mostly to the complexity and level of abstraction required in the subject matter and lack of appropriate vocabulary knowledge in L2), the immersion research shows that the *benefits in terms of L2 development are substantial and that no long term effect on content command has been found.* In fact, most immersion students can be tested in either language, and with similar results. (Cummins & Swain 1986, Harley et al. 1990).

Finally, a few comments on the *not so successful outcomes of the immersion programmes* (for a critical view, cf. Hammerly 1985, Baetens Beardsmore 1993). First, *language minority children do not seem to* benefit from these programmes in the sense that they would *develop functional bilinguality* in their two languages. This is due to many reasons, the most important ones concerning the status of the minority language and of the ethnic group in the L2 community, which often turn the immersion programme into a subtraction programme with no support to the maintenance of the mother tongue and original culture. This may have detrimental psychosocial effects on the child's development as a whole. Such effects have not been found with language majority students participating in immersion programmes.

Secondly, *although immersion students often reach native-like receptive skills in the L2, their productive skills continue to remain non-native like* (albeit better than in monolingual programmes) *particularly in terms of accuracy.* (It is important to bear in mind, however, that there are immersion programmes which distinctly aim mainly at the development of L2 receptive skills). Therefore, more recently, *the amount of formal language teaching* within the immersion programmes has been considerably increased, or attention has been explicitly focused on language rules and forms. This is *particularly important in programmes which do not have the support of a real, authentic L2 community around them,* ie. in situations where the second language is in reality a foreign language whose native speakers are not easily available for authentic input.

As stated above, immersion education is one of the most carefully studied educational approaches to second/foreign language development. Immersion-type solutions to language teaching are also found in many European countries (for immersion programmes in Finland, cf. Laurén 1990).

Content-Based Language Teaching

The arguments for introducing content-based language teaching in North America are based on five different rationales. According to Brinton et. al. (1989) the *rationales* implicit in the integration of language and content instruction in this way are as follows:

1) ESP (English for specific purposes) experiences and research shows that for successful language learning to occur, the language syllabus must take into account the uses the learner will make of the target language, which means systematic focussing on those language forms and functions which will best serve the learner in his/her future language use.

2) The use of informational content which is perceived as relevant by the learner enhances motivation in language learning and thus promotes learning effectiveness.

3) Content-based approaches are built upon the previous experience of the learner, as they take into account the learner's existing knowledge of the subject matter, and use pedagogical methods which aim at overall development of cognitive and academic skills, as well as linguistic skills.

4) Content-based approaches provide a larger framework and context for language development, in which focus is not only on fragmented examples of "correct" language forms, but also on interaction and discourse patterns.

5) SLA (second language acquisition) research suggests that a necessary condition for successful language learning is sufficient, comprehensible input which requires focussing on the meaning rather than the form. The development of good receptive communicative skills is the foundation on which productive skills are based.

In addition, the roots of content-based language teaching also lie in the experiences and research findings of immersion education and the language across the curriculum approaches. It is important to bear in mind that content-based language teaching can refer to both L1 and L2 instruction. Furthermore, content-based approaches are used on all educational levels, from the primary to the tertiary level.

As suggested by the name, **content-based language (CB) teaching has a double focus: content mastery and language development** (in educational discussion in Finland two terms exemplify this double focus very well "kielipainotteinen aineenopetus - language-enhanced content instruction" vs. "sisältöpainotteinen kielenopetus - content-based language instruction"). But there is also a **third aim** for CB instruction, and that is the focus on the **development of the learner's thinking skills** (or academic skills). This focus is necessary at least in the case of language minority students in general education, often referred to in the U.S. as LEP (limited English proficiency) students. It means systematic development of eg. learning strategies and other cognitive and metacognitive skills necessary for academic achievement on all levels of education. Interactive activities are used to promote the development of communicative skills, often within the framework of co-operative and experiential learning (Short 1990).

Three basic prototype models (described in Brinton et al. 1989, Wesche 1993), can be distinguished within the content-based language teaching approach: **theme-based, sheltered, and adjunct models**. Contrary to immersion programmes, the amount of content to be presented in L2 is not as strictly determined, although research seems to indicate that a minimum of 25 % is a prerequisite for successful language learning (Council of Europe workshop results 1993). Many CB programmes in the U.S. are, however, comparable to immersion programmes in this respect, covering most of the curriculum in L2.

The three prototype models share the following features:

1. Content is used as the curriculum organizing principle.

2. There is a double objective in the models: content mastery and second language development.

3. Authentic (ie. not produced for language teaching purposes) language materials and tasks (ie. reflecting types of academic demands placed upon the students) are used, with supplementation and adaptation by the teacher.

4. Accommodation is made to the materials (and pedagogical approaches used) according to learner needs and proficiency levels.

The basic *differences* can be found in the primary learning and assessment foci, as well as teacher roles. *In a theme-based model, the focus is second language learning* and the content is usually presented by the language teacher. An integrated language teaching curriculum, with higher levels of language processing, can be developed around a specific theme which is relevant for the learners, and all language skills can be practiced in a systematic and meaningful way. The theme-based model is the most wide-spread of the three models, because it can be easily implemented, although it does require a considerable amount of coordination in terms of materials adaptation and development.

In sheltered courses, mastery of content is the primary focus, which is why a content area specialist is usually responsible for the instruction. Second language learners are separated or "sheltered" from native speaker students, which is believed to provide a positive and more comfortable learning environment where the students can benefit from the linguistic adjustments made by the teacher. Sheltered instruction requires an institutional setting in which content area specialists with sufficient proficiency in the target language are available. The course is designed in co-operation with the language teacher, who often also takes responsibility for teaching the students appropriate communicative skills and study skills (eg. note-taking, learning strategies) to facilitate content learning. Sheltered courses are becoming quite popular in tertiary-level education.

The adjunct model refers to content-based instruction in which students are simultaneously taking *a content course and a (separate) language course* - the idea being that the two courses complement each other in terms of mutually coordinated activities. In North America, second language learners are integrated with native speakers in the content class but segregated from them in the language class. A large amount of co-operation and coordination is necessary to ensure development of both content mastery and language.

As regards *teacher qualifications* in implementing these content-based language teaching models, Brinton et al. (1989) suggest the following: For theme-based teaching the language teachers need training in content and language curriculum design and materials development, and for sheltered instruction the content specialists need awareness and knowledge of second language development. Successful implementation of the adjunct model, then, requires that both the language and content teachers be trained in curriculum and syllabus design, as well as materials development. Furthermore, training should also focus on curriculum coordination and team-teaching methodology.

European Models of Bilingual Education

The diversity and success of the bilingual and multilingual programmes used in Europe is often neglected, because they are not as well documented as the North-American models. Yet, most European countries have long traditions in multilingual education either for the whole population or for selected groups based on some contextually relevant criteria. Among the "prototype" models on which more systematic research is available are the European School model, operating in nine different countries, the Foyer model in Brussels, and the Luxembourg model. All models are additive in nature, and all except the Foyer model are in principle examples of mainstream education. The Foyer model is offered to immigrants, and aims at maintenance of the home language. The account given below is mainly based on *Baetens Beardsmore's (1993) report and comparison* of the European bilingual and trilingual programmes.

A. The Luxembourg trilingual model

This model is unique in the sense that it is offered to the entire school population of the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg. Due to the fact that there is no full university in Luxembourg, the school population goes through a transition from monolingual (Luxemburger) to trilingual (German and French) in order to be able to pursue university studies abroad. For this reason only, as well as due to proximity and contact with the neighbouring countries, the proficiency level of the Luxemburger students must be sufficiently high in all three languages in order to manage future endeavours.

The Luxembourg system is based on the principle of introducing the home language, Luxemburger, in pre-school and primary education, proceed to instruction given in German, which is similar to L1, and followed by French as a subject in grade 2 already. Later, towards reaching the level of secondary education, the dominant role of German as a medium of instruction is diminished, with French substituting it as the medium of instruction. Throughout this process of transition, both German and French are also actual subjects of the curriculum. An important point to keep in mind is the fact that all three languages are also used in the immediate environment of the learners.

The teachers are all trilingual, and there is a strong community support for the system itself. The aim of the Luxembourg programme is full trilingualism, and the results have been very good, with 70 % (in 1985-86) of the students involved in the standard programme having succeeded in the final examinations leading to higher education. Thus, trilingual education can have a very high success rate, irrespective of social class, student selection, and other factors often seen as prerequisities for success in such programmes.

B. European School Model

The European School model refers to a network of nine schools operating in five different countries. The network was founded in 1958, and the school population for which it is aimed includes children of European civil servants, although other students are also accepted. Perhaps because of this student selection criterion, European Schools are often seen as elite schools, although education is, in most cases, totally free. The same programme is followed in each School, irrespective of the language of instruction (home language + other languages). This, too, is a trilingual programme, aiming at full bilingualism and biliteracy in two languages and at partial trilingualism in the third language. All languages are taught both as a subject and as a medium, with L1 dominance in primary education, L2 (English, French or German) gradually substituting it as a medium of instruction. Study of an L3 becomes compulsory from the third grade of secondary education. The total number of formal language teaching hours, over the 12-year syllabus, are 1,100 in L2 (in addition to L2-medium instruction), and 360 for L3 (in addition to optional courses which use L3 as the medium). The students must take the European Baccalaureate examination through the medium of two languages. The success rates in university entrance examinations have been approximately 90 % for the students graduating from the European Schools.

C. The Foyer Model in Brussels

This bicultural and trilingual education programme is offered to immigrants in 10 Dutch-medium schools in Brussels, with an aim to integrate language minority students into the French-dominant bilingual city and into the mainstream educational system. During the first year of primary education, following a three-year kindergarten period with half of the time spent in individual ethnic and language groups and half with the mainstream children, 60 % of lesson time is spent in a separate group, 30 % as a separate group learning Dutch and the rest in the integrated class. In grade two, 30 % of the instructional time is already spent with the mainstream group, while from the third year onwards 90 % of the time is spent in this way. French is introduced as a compulsory subject at the age of seven, and taught with the mainstream group according to the legal requirements of Belgium. Strong parental involvement is necessary, and efforts are taken to promote intercultural exchanges between the groups involved also in extra-curricular activities.

Since this model is still at an experimental stage, final outcomes are not available. The first results, however, are encouraging.

D. Other European experiences

Yet another model, comparable to the above although slightly different in its orientation is the Catalan/Basque bilingual programmes in Spain. This model resembles the Canadian immersion model in its administration, as well as results. In both Catalonia and the Basque country there are programmes which have the national language Spanish as a subject and as a medium of instruction. The bilingual programmes aim at full bilingualism and biliteracy, and are additive in nature. Both languages are used in the immediate environment. As with North-American immersion programmes, the best results have been gained in situations where majority speakers are receiving their instruction in the second language (the Basque model), or both languages are used as a medium of instruction (50 % + 50 %). (For details, cf. Artigal 1993).

In his *comparisons between the various models* Baetens Beardsmore (1993) states that what is noticable in the implementation of the various successful models of bilingualism in Europe, is the fact that *they have been developed on the basis of local criteria, for local purposes.* No single model is applicable directly, but the situational and operational factors, as well as the outcomes expected, must be used in the decisions taken. As regards the *common factors in all models* presented above, the following are among the most important:

a) the *languages* involved are *immediately pertinent* and seen as such; eg. there is access to their use in the surrounding environment (language as a subject often neglects the importance of this factor)

b) the *teachers* are *highly proficient in the target language(s),* which makes high levels of student competence in L2 a realistic goal (in situations where the contextual factors do not allow for this development, it is not realistic to expect native-like productive competence)

c) *parental involvement* is encouraged;

d) *different paths can lead to high levels of proficiency;*

e) *bilingualism* is *overtly promoted by whole-school policies and public attitudes* (cannot be totally controlled by the school, these are also contextual constraints to be taken into account).

Furthermore, *emphasis on the target language as a subject, characteristic of the European models, seems to be an important factor in explaining the level of accuracy in the target language, ie. high level of productive skills,* attained in these models. As was mentioned above in connection with the Canadian immersion model, this is one area to which considerably more attention is now given, when compared with the early years of immersion education.

Because of lack of internationally accessible documentation on the many other bilingual programmes already in operation in many European countries, and the speed in which bilingual experiments are increasing, it is not possible to give a comprehensive account of them. Bilingual sections are often part of secondary education in Germany and other countries, "elite" schools aiming at high L2 proficiency exist in many countries, and the number of bilingual education programmes and experiments is rapidly growing all over Europe, indicating perhaps an aim at some form of "European citizenship".

In the last part of this article an account will be given on a recent (September 1993) Council of Europe workshop addressing both theoretical and practical issues involved in bilingual programmes. The sub-projects started in this Workshop 12 A will continue for two years, and the findings will be reported at the end of 1995 in trilingual Luxembourg.

6. European Considerations on the Development of Bilingual Education

Teaching non-language subjects or "content" through a second/foreign language is not of increasing interest in Finland only, but also seems to be one of the trends in a large Council of Europe project called "**Language learning for European citizenship**". One of the workshops included in this project was held in Soest, Germany, at the end of September 1993. The name of this Workshop 12 A was *Bilingual education in secondary schools: learning and teaching non-language subjects through a foreign language*, and the participants (some 70 in total) represented 28 European countries. The idea was to share experiences of bilingual education and to discuss some mutually important issues, as well as make plans for future research, development and co-operation.

During a very intensive week, seven working groups discussed the following themes and problematic issues involved in this type of bilingual education:

1. What can be *gained* by teaching/learning non-language subjects through a foreign language?

2. How should bilingual teaching/learning be *organized* in order for the model to be suitable for each context, for the specific needs and circumstances of each country?

3. *To whom* should bilingual forms of learning be offered? Are there any specific requirements or prerequisites to be met?

4. Are specific *methodological approaches* necessary? How can language learning be coordinated across curricular and subject boundaries?

5. Who *qualifies for teaching* bilingually organizes subject areas?

6. How can schools offering bilingual programmes develop an *international profile*?

Although the forms of bilingual/multilingual education offered by the various European countries may differ considerably, it seems that the questions and concerns are quite similar. At the end of the workgroup discussion, the following **conclusions and recommendations** were presented as a summary:

* *Bilingualism and bilingual education in Europe* is not an exception, but a living reality - it should not be seen as something for the elite only, it is *for all citizens.*

* Programmes in which the *whole school policy truly supports bilingualism* (ie. the atmosphere at institutions, attitudes of pupils, teachers and principals, as well as the outward appearance of the school activities which overtly shows that this school/institution thinks highly of bilingualism/ multilingualism) have been the most successful ones. There are still too many examples of a "hidden curriculum" in which covert attitudes and everyday actions act against the "official" pro-bilingual policies. But in order to achieve a successful whole school policy, close co-operation and open discussion are needed to cross the traditional subject boundaries towards a re-evaluation of the curriculum and pedagogical approaches.

* Special attention should be paid to *integrating language and intercultural communication into the whole curriculum,* in order to strengthen one's own national identity and culture and to enhance internationalization and international understanding on a practical level.

* Bilingual learning results should not be measured by tests designed for monolingual programmes. *Special tests and assessment forms are needed,* and school-specific tests should be developed.

* There is *no research evidence to show the unsuitability of some subject for bilingual education (except the mother tongue).* However, at lower levels, it might be easier to choose subjects which have a rather low linguistic content and which allow for a variety of illustrative materials or physical action to be employed (eg. arts, crafts, PE, mathematics, geography). In

this way, sufficient time is allowed for the development of pupil's vocabulary and concepts.

* *A minimum amount of* 25 % is required to produce real gains and good results.

* *Setting of aims must be realistic,* taking into account learner needs, skills and experiences, as well as other constraints. In the Finnish context of English/German as a foreign language, for instance, this means matching together the aims, the teacher's proficiency level and pedagogical approach, as well as the pupils' level of English/German.

* *Bilingual programmes must be supported by formal language teaching,* which should accompany content teaching in a systematic and coordinated way.

* Content teaching should use *learner-centred pedagogical approaches* in order to provide opportunities for authentic language practice.

* *Institutional support* is essential and should be concerned with teacher development, systematic co-operation and school development, development of instructional and assessment materials, as well as with re-evaluation of traditional subject boundaries.

The international R&D projects set up for 18 months at Soest will address the development of bilingual curricula, materials, methodology and assessment, development of teacher development programmes and description of teacher qualifications, establishment of exchange programmes, and development of whole-school policies. The accomplishments of the projects will be presented at a follow-up meeting of the Workshop 12 A, to be held at the end of 1995 in Luxembourg. This event will no doubt be crucial in terms of more systematic documentation on the European approaches to bilingual education, as well as establishment of European networks in this field.

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FRAMEWORK AND IMPLEMENTATION OF THE JYVÄSKYLÄ TCE/TCFL PROGRAMMES

History and Background

The first teacher in-service development programme in foreign language content instruction was run by the Continuing Education Centre of the University of Jyväskylä in 1991-1992 as a contract programme for the City of Kokkola. This provided the basis for the development of the national programme, which was started in April 1992 in Jyväskylä. The programme was called the *TCE Teacher Development Programme (Teaching Content through English)*, and it ended in April 1993. The number of participants was 60, representing all levels of education (except university), from primary level through to vocational.

The success of the 1992-1993 programme led to the development in 1992 of the present *TCFL (Teaching Content in a Foreign Language) Programme*, which offers the opportunity to specialize in the teaching of non-language subjects through *English or German*. The 1993-1994 programme, which is to end in April 1994, also has participants (total 95) from all levels, from throughout Finland. The third national programme is to be held in 1994-1995.

As the interest in and demand for this type of teacher development has grown, institutions (mainly polytechnics) throughout the country have been requesting on-site, institution-specific and tailored training programmes. By the end of 1993, six polytechnics have already embarked on such programmes, and there are indications that the number will steadily rise. In addition, some subject-specific areas have been found to be significantly appropriate at this point for instruction through a foreign language, such as environmental education, and other courses which deal with international issues or aim at enhancing international understanding.

General Aims

The general aim of the programme is to provide the individual teacher, and school/college in which s/he operates, an opportunity to develop his/her expertise, skills and abilities to teach in either English or German to an optimum level.

By the end of the programme, participants should be able to:
* Possess a clear understanding of the theoretical foundations of TCFL
* Understand the major differences between teaching the foreign language as a subject and teaching non-language subjects through this language
* Recognize individual strengths and weaknesses in using English/German as a means of communication
* Have access to the latest research findings on TCFL within Finland and elsewhere
* Implement a clearly defined course/curriculum plan
* Practice different types of teaching methodologies to enhance learning in the content classroom
* Identify suitable teaching materials available
* Design assessment procedures for TCFL classes
* Appreciate the role that TCFL may play within school/college development
* Carry out classroom research for self-development purposes
* Possess a final draft of a personal action research report on some aspects TCFL
* Formulate clear action plans for the implementation of future TCFL courses/curricula.

Key issues in adopting a TCFL approach

If an individual teacher or an institution is planning to start the teaching of non-language subject(s) through a foreign language, certain issues need to be considered prior to any larger-scale operation. These issues, which are prerequisites for successful implementation, also require on-going appraisal and evaluation when conducting TCFL courses.

1. Clarification of TCFL aims

The first question concerns the reasons for starting this type of teaching. Why are we interested in this approach? What are we aiming to achieve? Do we have the time and resources available? Is this in the best interest of the learners? Do we understand the potential hazards and the implications? What proportion of the course or the curriculum should be taught through the foreign language?

Clarification of aims is extremely important, because it forms the framework around which all ensuing questions hinge. For instance, if the main aim is to provide opportunities for foreign language development in some specific skills (eg. oral skills), then the teaching methods and materials must allow and support these. Simultaneously, however, the amount of subject matter content to be handled might have to be condensed from what it usually is in first language instruction. It should not be assumed that this means reduction in the overall quality of a course, but rather the adoption of a new approach, which fulfills a dual objective. Therefore, two sets of aims run parallel, and it is essential to ensure that neither is neglected and that both are realistic.

2. Co-operation and collaboration

Any new venture requires a certain degree of co-operation. TCFL requires a considerable amount of it, often in very new forms. The key participants in this co-operation are the principal, who is responsible for the administrative framework within which TCFL takes place, the non-language subject matter teacher and the language teacher responsible for a given group, and the learner. In addition, depending on the educational level, the key participants may also include other interest groups, such as parents, educational authorities, fellow teachers, and even the community at large. Questions to be asked here address all these issues, including the fundamental questions of whether the basic prerequisites for such co-operation and collaboration exist already, or whether the introduction of TCFL will actually also have to act as a catalyst for constructive change. If this is the case, then the role of the principal and the ways in which TCFL is introduced become all the more significant. And in practical terms, there must be additional time reserved for planning and information sharing, as well as for monitoring the opinions of all interest groups.

3. *Methodological approaches*

Starting TCFL with specific language development aims in mind often involves reappraisal of teaching methods generally in use. Apart from the fact that certain subjects tend to favour certain types of teaching approaches, TCFL will, in most cases, necessitate a shift towards more learner-interactive approaches. After all, in our context, one of the most common aims for the introduction of TCFL is to develop foreign language productive skills. The questions to be asked, then, are whether my approach allows for the development of those skills that have been named as the language aims of my course, and to what extent should I assess and modify the methods I usually use, in order to make them more relevant for both content and language development.

4. *Teaching materials*

In the early stages of introducing TCFL, a considerable amount of time and attention should be given to materials development and acquisition. As yet, ready-made, commercial materials for TCFL do not generally exist, and the materials aimed at the native speakers of the foreign language are often inappropriate for wide-spread introduction into the Finnish classroom. These are, however, quite useful as resource material to be adapted and further developed. If the financial resources for the acquisition of such materials are scarce, even more time must be set aside for materials design and development, because direct translation of previously used Finnish materials will probably not work in the new context.

A further consideration here is the coordination of the subject matter content and the concurrently presented language teaching content. Lack of co-operation here might lead to a situation in which the teachers are not working in the best interests of the learner. Ideally, the non-language subject classroom should reinforce, consolidate, and even expand, the kinds of skills that have been or are being focused upon in the language classroom. This interdisciplinary approach, however, does require joint planning and implementation, as well as assessment, and consumes surprisingly much time.

5. *Assessment of results*

Yet another of the key points to be discussed and decided upon in a TCFL context is the question of assessment. Which aspects of content command and language development should be assessed, in what way and in which language? Who is responsible for test design, and in what way is overall learner progress monitored? It is the context of assessment that will show most clearly whether the aims set at the beginning are sufficiently specific, motivating but realistic, and acceptable to all parties involved.

In addition to learner assessment, it is important to also have tools for the evaluation of the TCFL implementation itself. The data collected through, for instance, action research procedures by the teachers themselves will provide necessary feedback on their work, as well as serve as evidence for various interest groups and stakeholders, or as a basis for the decisions taken within the programme. Student portfolios and other continuous assessment devices, on the other hand, provide information on the learning process and progress and develop tools for learning how to learn.

6. Follow-up, information sharing and public relations

Since adopting a new teaching approach necessarily sparks interest at least in the institutional community, it is often necessary to make plans about who should be informed about it, in what way, how often, and who is responsible for giving this information. Open discussion with at least colleagues and learners seems to be essential for positive outcomes and support, and in some cases parental support, as well as involvement of educational and other authorities will also become necessary. What is important is that for any larger-scale TCFL a clear and systematic plan is thought out on the follow-up and reporting procedures to be used during the programme. Decisions about these issues should be made relatively early, in order to be prepared to answer questions, to gather data and to provide appropriate evidence for all interest groups. In this way it is also possible to systematically follow the progress of the programme, and to make the necessary adjustments in any phase or aspect of the programme implementation.

General framework of the Jyväskylä TCFL teacher development programme

The Jyväskylä teacher in-service development programme comprises six modules of contact study, spread out across 12 months, with self-study, experimentation and action research periods in between. The design of the programme follows the general principles of TCFL, with aims set for both content (ie. theory of TCFL) and language development of the participant group. Thus, the programme is run in English (and German) and all the assignments, including the final action research report, are also done in the foreign language. In this way it is possible to demonstrate the variety of methodological approaches possible in TCFL, and to monitor progress. The participants write their individual plans and design their own projects, but during the contact days they can collaborate with colleagues, share concerns, brainstorm for new ideas, and benefit from collegial assessment and support.

Each TCFL programme has been slightly different because of the different needs of the participant groups, but the basic framework has remained as follows:

GENERAL FRAMEWORK AND MODULE DESCRIPTIONS (example from 1993-1994)
(to be adjusted according to the needs of the participant groups)

February	**Enrolment, background surveys & preassessment**
May	**Orientation seminar & FL Communication skills assessment**
(Summer	intensive FL courses, if needed)
Module 1 **August**	**Language immersion & FL content instruction: theoretical principles, aims & experiences**
Aims	* to give an overview of the state of the art in TCFL and bilingual programmes * language aims: diagnostic survey of the participants' levels of communicative proficiency and of their needs
Module 2 **September**	**Teaching content through the FL vs. teaching the FL as a subject**
Aims	* to reflect upon the differences between TCFL and formal language teaching, on the basis of a) principles of language learning and teaching; b) second language development, aims and objectives; and c)

individual learning contracts, learning styles and strategies
* language aims: activation of communication skills, diagnosis of pronunciation and presentation skills, learner profiles for individual learning aims and plans

Module 3
October

Subject-specific concepts and course planning

Aims

* to make individual decisions on future TCFL content areas; survey of key concepts, terminology and vocabulary in each subject
* to introduce frameworks for course and material designs on the basis of different methodological, curricular and other criteria
* language aim: vocabulary building

Module 4
November

Facilitating FL development in the content classroom

Aims

* to provide practice in using different kinds of teaching methods for language development
* to design individual course frameworks, determine aims and forms of assessment
* language aims: practicing language functions used in the teaching context

Module 5
January

Individual course design and classroom research

Aims

* to discuss effects and concerns of experimentation in the institutional context
* to finalize individual plans for experimentation
* to develop tools for classroom research and evaluation
* language aims: practicing classroom management and teaching

Experimentation and classroom action research period

Module 6 **April**	**Follow-up reports, research results and evaluation**
Aims	* to share experiences, to report orally on experimentations * to make follow-up plans (eg. editing of materials) * to plan reports to interest groups * language aims: diagnostic TCFL language assessment
May	**Deadline for submission of written research reports and sample materials**
(Summer	courses in Britain, via the National Board of Education)

N.B. The modules follow an integrated, process-type approach and the order of contents may vary according to the participant needs. Active individual involvement is required for sufficient tailoring of modules. The extent of the whole programme, including research reports and other assignment work is 15-20 university credits, depending on the extent of experimentation. A certificate of completion, as well as an optional TCFL language diploma, is given to participants who have fulfilled all programme requirements.

Research and written assignments connected with the programme

Due to the nature of the programme, research activities are required from both programme administrators and participants.

1. *Programme administrators and trainers*

* background surveys of participants (for programme tailoring), including participants' educational background and professional experience, formal FL studies, international experience, prior TCFL experience, attitudes and concept of language, language use and language learning, self-assessment of own language use and skills, self-assessment of

predicted TCFL skills, reasons for starting, specific wishes regarding programme

- orientation questionnaire (to survey views of TCFL, personal aims, institutional aims, main concerns, and to enhance awareness of needs)
- proficiency tests (for assessment and consultation purposes) administered at the beginning and end of programme
- survey of individual learning styles and language learning strategies
- continuous follow-up of and consultation on individual action research projects
- assessment of action research reports

2. Participants (in addition to the above)

- self-study and written assignments for each module
- development and continuous assessment of personal plans (in the form of diaries, logbooks or portfolios, SWOT analysis)
- development of individual course plans
- development and experimentation with 1-2 lessons, reporting
- development of action research plan
- extensive action research period with special emphasis on methodology, materials development, research questionnaires and assessment; reported orally and in the written form (final report)

Range of subjects covered in experimentations (1993)

1) **general education**: integrated curriculum (FL across the curriculum, environmental studies, civics, natural sciences, mathematics, history, religion, arts and craft, music, P.E., FL cultural and social skills

2) **vocational education**: marketing, accounting, ADP, business economics, commodity studies, risk management, forestry, restaurant service and catering, forest economy, sociology, psychology, counselling, creative expression, physiotherapy, anatomy, nursing, plant husbandry, personnel management, history of wine-making.

Participant feedback

Participant feedback on all TCE/TCFL programmes has been extremely positive. What seems to be of utmost importance is the fact that the programme offers an opportunity for practicing teachers to co-operate across curricular and institutional borders. At this time of profound change in educational priorities, values and directions, the participating teachers seem to find the support available from their peers extremely important, both for their work in general and for their TCFL experiments in particular.

Tailoring an in-service programme to the degree that is necessary in our particular context is difficult and demanding. On one hand, the content must address the fundamental issues involved in teaching content and language simultaneously, and, on the other hand, the participant group represent very heterogeneous needs and skills. Crossing well-established subject boundaries is a sensitive and delicate matter even in training, let alone at the school/college into which the participants return with their enthusiastic plans. The clarification of teacher roles, in order to provide a basis for peaceful and constructive co-existence and co-operation is not an easy task, but requires constant attention. For these reasons alone, the TCFL Network (described below), and the support it can offer in terms of reuniting programme participants and others working in the same field, as well as in other ways, is a necessary forum for sharing new research information, experiences, concerns and many other issues of practical importance.

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THE TCFL NETWORK

Introduction

The concept of TCFL Network was first considered in 1992, when it became apparent that an infrastructure should be created to coordinate TCFL activities throughout the country. This infrastructure had to be workable, adaptable and cost-effective. Various ideas to achieve these priorities were examined at the University of Jyväskylä, in close cooperation with the National Board of Education.

The central aims involved facilitation of the following:

1. Building a register for circulation to members about TCFL activities, with names and contact details of key personnel
2. Creation of a research bank which would contain reports on the implementation of TCFL at different levels
3. Development of a bibliography of key materials which might enhance TCFL in different subject areas
4. Scheduling of "special interest groups" which could be brought together in different locations to consider needs and interests
5. Provision of information on TCFL interests and experiences to Network members through publication of the TCFL Newsletter
6. Establishment of a central body which could represent the interests of members and disseminate information on TCFL activities and developments directly to both members and administrators.
7. Provide electronic means by which to provide storage and retrieval of key information by Network members.

Among the constraints affecting the development of such an infrastructure, the most obvious were the heterogeneity of the interest groups and the issue of cost-effectiveness. That is, the network had to serve the needs of the members and, during a period of severe economic recession, had to be cheap to set up and operate. In addition, geographical factors, such as members possibly living as much as 800 kilometres apart, meant that the operating principles could not depend heavily on actually bringing people together for seminars and so on.

Finally, during the 1991-1993 period, some sections of the educational community, for example, those at polytechnic level, were handling unusually heavy work loads as a result of organizational change and professional development requirements. Such teachers were clearly unable to devote time to participation in a network, unless it could efficiently satisfy their needs.

Implementation

1. Information Bank

The register of teachers who are presently introducing, or who plan to introduce, instruction in English or German, presently includes 400 names. The register is updated each six months and includes names, addresses, subject to be taught in the foreign language and other contact details.

2. Research Bank

The research bank comprises data and reports representing research conducted in various areas from both within Finland and outside. Key articles and reports (ef. Räsänen 1994, this volume, Reference Bibliography, this volume) are generally theoretical in orientation. These help provide information on constructs which underpin the relationship between viewing language as the tool as opposed to the object of study. They also enable an overview to be made of the fundamental differences posed by approaches in this area, which carry various names such as immersion, content-based language teaching, teaching non-language subjects in a foreign language and bilingual education.

The reports which originate in Finland tend to be field reports in which teachers, generally those who have undergone professional development training in TCFL, report on action research conducted in situ in schools and colleges throughout the country. The number of such reports presently stands at about 100 with a further 90 reports expected by June 1994.

The research bank is likely to be enhanced by MA theses from Finnish universities, and efforts are presently underway to encourage undergraduates to consider taking TCFL as an object of study.

3. TCFL Bibliography

A bibliography of key references and reports in this area has been compiled and is periodically updated. The purpose of the bibliography is to collect those articles which may appear in journals representing a range of academic disciplines, from, for example, educational sciences to applied linguistics. These are expected to be of value to practioners and researchers interested in TCFL. The existing bibliography distinguishes between those articles which are readily available at the University of Jyväskylä and those which are known of but not yet available at the University library. Efforts are underway to obtain articles presently unavailable at the library, for such copies to be kept in the Research Bank.

4. Special Interest Groups

The concept of the SIG is to provide a forum for groups within the Network to come together to find solutions to reported problems concerning various facets of TCFL. The first seminar, attended by approximately 50 people, concentrated on intercultural communication. Invited lecturers opened discussion on the topic, and participants were then brought together to exchange ideas and views in informal forums in which experts acted as consultants. In an effort to broaden dissemination of information, articles compiled by the invited speakers were collected and submitted for publication, in this case, to the journal for foreign language teachers in Finland, Tempus.

The 2nd SIG meeting (September 1994) was designed for language teachers who are to work alongside TCFL teachers (or, in some cases, who are to work as TCFL teachers).

The 3rd SIG meeting (late autumn 1994) will concern primary school level teachers who wish to consider materials which are used for TCE at primary level.

Further SIG meetings will be held according to the wishes of Network members with location chosen according to optimum logistics. At present SIG seminars have been held in Jyväskylä in Central Finland, its geographical position being the deciding factor.

5. The TCFL Network Newsletter

The first TCFL Network Newsletter appeared in late 1993 and had a distribution of 500 copies. It contained articles by key figures involved with the introduction of TCFL in Finland, information on training opportunities and the TCFL Network itself. The second edition appears in Spring 1994 with articles largely written by Network members on the theme of "getting started".

It is likely that the Newsletter will appear twice a year, but as electronic means for dissemination of information is developed, the role of the Newsletter will probably decline. It may, however, be useful to maintain occasional publication of the Newsletter in order to ensure that non-members, or those unfamiliar with electronic retrieval, may be informed about TCFL developments in the country. However, strategically-placed articles in existing publications may be a more cost-effective means of achieving this aim.

6. TCFL Coordination

In 1990 the Continuing Education Centre of the University of Jyväskylä, under the auspices of Anne Räsänen, started investigating the potential of TCFL in Finland. The following year, Anne Räsänen, who had studied bilingual education at the University of Toronto and David Marsh, who had experience of multi-level bilingual education projects in Brunei, cooperated with Antero Savela, Director of Education of the Kokkola district, in conducting a pilot teacher training programme for teachers intent on starting TCE activities. On the basis of this programme a variety of national teacher development programmes and institution-specific programmes have been organised in Jyväskylä.

At present it seems appropriate that the Continuing Education Centre of the University of Jyväskylä will continue to act as a national coordinating body. It should, however, be stressed that the concept of networking often negates the significance of a central body. Therefore, although Jyväskylä University is presently the main centre for national TCFL operations, authority and decision-making on questions relating to TCFL will probably remain with the wide range of schools, colleges, educational administrative bodies and, essentially network members involved in TCFL. This is not just a matter of cost-effectiveness, but also one of project-orientedness, which has long been dominant in the Jyväskylä operation. Although logistics must facilitate centralised cohesion to support TCFL, a centralised authority itself is not necessary for its implementation.

Further development

In the future it is anticipated that the Finnish TCFL Network will be linked up with other regional/national networks which are likely to be developed within the European Union. Developments in Germany, and discussions with interested parties in Sweden, indicate that in the future the Finnish TCFL Network will be one of many within the EU.

One of the great advantages of an interlocking EU TCFL network is the facilitation of transnational curricula and teacher mobility, both of which are highly relevant in the present day.

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DIPLOMA OF PROFIENCY IN TEACHING IN ENGLISH

One of the main aims of the programme was to improve the participants´ proficiency in English. This was promoted by making English the operating language for the whole programme. English was used as the language of instruction and discussion, almost all material was in English, and the participants were encouraged to use English in their informal contacts as well.

The principle of "English only" worked better than expected. There was an extensive exposure to spoken and written English. This undoubtedly contributed to the fact that the participants clearly felt increasingly more comfortabe in using English. Equally obvious was the fact that, in general, there was a clear improvement in the participants´ proficiency in English. This was also seen in the project reports that the participants wrote on the basis of their classroom research tasks.

In addition to this informal assessment based on continuous observation, the participants´ proficiency was tested at the beginning and at the end of the programme. Data analysis is not finished and, thus, the results will be published at a later date.

During the course of the programme the team responsible for it came to the conclusion that there should be a more formal assessment of proficiency of teaching in a foreign language. This was based on several considerations. Clearly, to be able to do a good job in teaching in a foreign language the teacher needs to have a sufficient command of the language. A reliable test of proficiency would be useful for individual teachers thinking of starting to teach in a foreign language. The test would also be useful for the schools/institutions, which could demonstrate to pupils/students and parents etc. that the involved teaching staff possesses the requisite language proficiency. Furthermore, the test would be useful in the context of the expected increased teacher exchange and in other forms of international contacts in the educational field.

Drawing on the long and extensive experience in developing proficiency tests for business and industry and for adult education, the team contructed a 4-hour test, which was offered on voluntary basis to the course participants. Twenty teachers took the test.

In line with recent developments in testing, the test was based on a 9-point proficiency scale. The test consisted of the following parts: (i) Listening comprehension, which was based on a taped discussion on educational matters. The first part was heard twice and the second part only once. The test takers had to write brief summaries of answers to interview questions and brief answers to questions that were based on the contents of the tape. (ii) Speaking test, which was partly taken individually in a language laboratory and partly done as a group discussion. The lab task consisted of brief situational descriptions in Finnish/Swedish and the test taker had to respond in English in an appropriate manner. For the videotaped group discussion, the test takers had received a few days beforehand a topic that they were required to deal with in a brief presentation of 4-5 minutes. The other members of the group were expected to make questions and give comments. The language laboratory session lasted about one hour and 20 minutes altogether. The videotaped group discussion lasted about half an hour. (iii) Reading test, which consisted of four relatively short passages. Test takers had to write a summary in Finnish or Swedish and answer a number of brief questions based on the texts. The testing times was about one hour. (iv) Writing test, in which the participants had to write two formal letters related to their professional contexts. The test takers could take about 40 minutes for completing this test. (v) Vocabulary and grammar test, which consisted a close test of grammar, a list of 40 randomly selected English words to be translated into Finnish or Swedish, and a brief passage in Finnish/ Swedish to translate into English. About one hour was allowed for this test.

The test was marked by three raters and the participants received a certificate. (Appendix 1 & 2). The Jyväskylä team intends to offer the test to all teachers interested and make it a recognized test in the national and international contexts.

APPENDIX 1

Diploma of Proficiency in Teaching in English

***Name** has taken the Diploma of Proficiency in Teaching in English examination on date. On the basis of a battery of oral and written tests, her proficiency has been assessed on a scale of 1-9.*

Overall Proficiency Rating 7

Listening	*8*	*Speaking*	*7*
Reading	*8*	*Writing*	*7*
Grammar	*6*	*Vocabulary*	*7*

*This overall proficiency rating shows that **Name** has a very good command of English.*

On this level of proficiency a person can be expected to manage a wide variety of teaching situations of varying complexity in English. This level also suggests that a person can be expected to function adequately in a range of professional English language situations such as working as an English-medium teacher in other countries.

Date

Signatures

APPENDIX 2

The person who has taken the Diploma of Proficiency in Teaching in English examination has participated in a battery of tests which have examined his/her knowledge of oral and written English. Assessment has focussed on the communicative effectiveness and appropriacy of language as well as linguistic accuracy.

OVERALL PROFICIENCY RATING SCALE

Level 9	Has a full command of the language: flawless, fluent, appropriate and well organised use of language. An exceptional level of language proficiency, which is normally attained only by well-educated language professionals.
Level 8	Communicates effectively and appropriately even in demanding oral and written tasks and situations. Fluent and in many ways native-like. Occasional problems with subtle stylistic distinctions and idioms.
Level 7	Communicates effectively and appropriately even in many demanding oral and written tasks and situations. Usage is quite versatile and fluent with some trace of the mother tongue. Understands with ease both general and professional/occupational language.
Level 6	Communicates appropriately in familiar oral and written tasks and situations related to work and free time. Language knowledge seldom hinders effective communication. Occasional inaccuracies and inadequacies which nevertheless seldom lead to misunderstandings. Mother tongue interference is in evidence but not intrusive. Rarely has problems understanding general or professional/occupational language.
Level 5	Communicates well in familiar oral and written tasks and situations related to work and freetime. Makes an effort to be an effective communicator. Inaccuracies cause some misunderstandings and language is not always quite fluent or appropriate. Interference from mother tongue or other languages is evident. Understands ordinary spoken and written text and there is only occasional need for repetition or consulting a dictionary.
Level 4	Communicates fairly well on familiar tasks and situations; effective communication may sometimes be hindered by problems with language. Can handle routine writing tasks related to work and free time. Interference from L1/other languages quite obvious. Vocabulary, grammar and fluency generally adequate, but speaking or writing may reveal specific strengths or weaknesses.

Level 3	Manages to communicate in the most familiar oral and written tasks and situations but new situations cause communication problems. Understands slow and careful speech and can normally understand the gist of an easy text.
Level 2	Manages to communicate in simple and routine tasks and situations. With the help of a dictionary can understand simple written messages but can get the gist without one. Limited language proficiency causes frequent breakdowns and misunderstandings in non-routine situations.
Level 1	Knowledge of language suffices to be able to cope with the simplest oral and written tasks and situations. Can understand the topic in newspaper articles and conversations that deal with familiar subjects. Knows some of the basic structures of the language.

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ACTION RESEARCH IN THE CLASSROOM

The idea of teachers as researchers is often associated with Lawrence Stenhouse, director of the Schools Council's Humanities Project (1967-72) and the founder (in 1970) of the Centre for Applied Research in Education (CARE) at the University of East Anglia (Elliott 1988). Stenhouse once stated that "It is teachers who, in the end, will change the world of the school by understanding it." Stenhouse, like a growing number of educators in other countries in the 1970's, was worried about the *gap between educational researchers and teachers.* Researchers seldom regarded teachers as partners in the research process (Rudduck & Hopkins, 1985). As a consequence of this lack of cooperation, educational research has not had the kind of impact that it properly should have had in school development. Some teachers have responded by dismissing educational research as irrelevant without first examining it critically. Others have equally uncritically sought to apply research results and recommendations without taking sufficient account of their own contexts and underestimating their own pedagogical expertise.

One of the motives of educators like Stenhouse is an *"emancipatory"* view of education. According to this view, it is the task of the teacher to free the pupils from the current limitations of their minds and to lead them to explore new knowledge. When this exploration is carried out in a spirit of critical enquiry, the process helps the pupils to gain also the power of the use of the acquired knowledge.

Just as it was increasingly stressed that pupils should in this way become more autonomous and self-directed, teachers needed to be freed from excessive external control. The emancipation of teachers, *"teacher-empowerment"*, was seen to be inextricably bound with pupil emancipation. This movement has brought about increased devolution of decision-making to the schools and teachers. Centralized educational systems have tended to become more decentralized.

One aspect of the delegation of decision making, though perhaps less prominent than the increased power of curricular decisions, is the view that one way of empowering teachers is for them to adopt the perspective of the researcher. *This means that research-oriented activity is seen as one promising means of improving the teachers´ pedagogical expertise. It is assumed that teachers will be better able to make decisions about their teaching if their judgements are supported by their own inquiries. Personal educational practice is then informed by a critical and inquiring approach to that practice.*

This represented a clear shift from traditional bureaucratic education, which suited for passive and receptive learning, to a flexible educational context which allows for active involvement in learning. This is also a shift from seeing a linear and hierarchical relationship between teaching and learning on the one hand and between research and practice, on the other. No longer was the teacher seen as the giver and the pupils as the receivers of knowledge nor was scientific knowledge always seen as preceding practice. The hierarchical and specialized roles of educational theorists (clarification of objectives), empirical researchers (study of process-product correlations), R & D specialists (development of methods and programmes) feeding knowledge to teacher technicians was questioned (Elliot 1988). Like all knowledge, knowledge about teaching is assumed to be constructed, rather than received. Teaching involves uncovering knowledge about learning through inquiry into practice (Linnakylä, Sajavaara & Takala 1991; Levine 1992).

The idea of action research carried out by teachers for improving the environment and conditions of classrooms was put forward by the Lewinian group dynamics school in the 1940´s (Lewin 1948, Levine 1992). Corey (1949) saw action research primarily as a means for curriculum development in cooperation with the universities.

The keyword - and an article on - teacher research was first introduced in the influential AREA publication "International Encyclopedia of Educational Research" as late as in its 6th edition in 1992. The idea has, however, longer roots. Like in the case of so many educational ideas, John Dewey was influential in suggesting the idea of teachers as students of teaching, in other words, teachers could and should reflect on their practice and learn from each other. The notion of the reflective practitioner was subsequently strongly advocated by Schon (1984, 1987).

Teacher research is typically action research, research which links investigation with efforts to solve practical problems or to develop new programmes. Teacher research is inspired primarily by the desire to understand the unique characteristics of a particular situation and the needs of the individual pupils in that situation (Levine 1992). Teacher research focuses on individuals, small groups or entire classes and it employs a variety of methodologies. Teacher research tends to differ from traditional academic research by being primarily *qualitative* rather than quantitative. The methodology utilizes e.g., observation, free and structured discussion, case studies, naturalistic contexts, ethnographic description, journals/diaries, essays.

One strand in this new trend was the ethnographic and other qualitative, naturalistic approaches used in writing research in America, in particular (Goswami & Stillman 1987, Graves 1983, Myers 1985) and in mother tongue education in general. Yetta Goodman advocated this approach calling for "kid-watching". In addition to America, the action research/teacher research/collaborative research was early adopted in Australia and New Zealand (e.g. Clay 1989). In Finland, Blom, Linnakylä and Takala (1989) carried out and reported a teacher-researcher collaborative action research project aiming at developing more effective reading strategies among pupils. Linnakylä, Sajavaara and Takala (1991) have edited a collection of articles written by teachers who were doing pilot work on the introduction of new information technology in class work. The authors took part in a course arranged by the editors on how to report a school-based experiment. The course was based on ideas of *collaborative research* between teachers and university-based researchers and utilized the process-writing approach.

In Finland another recent and well executed example of a case-study, with a clear development orientation, is a project on the introduction of international communications networks and electronic mail into foreign language classrooms by Tella (Tella 1991). It is not, however, an example of straightforward teacher research, as the researcher was not doing research in his own class but acted as a collaborative partner with the teachers and as a participant observer and facilitating change agent.

It was considerations like the above that led to the requirement in the TCE/TCFL programme that all participants were to plan, carry out and report a project during which some unit was taught in English.

Doing teacher research

In order to be able to do teacher research, teachers will have to be solvers of educational problems. They will have to be able to discover and define *problems*, to think of promising *alternatives of solving* them, to *observe and document* activities, to *reflect on* the observations and, ideally, to *report on* the changes in their pedagogical thinking (Takala 1992). McNiff (1993) -

quoting Jack Whitehead - has outlined the stages in action research - oriented enquiry as follows:

> 1) I identify a problem when some of my educational values are denied in my practice;
> 2) I imagine a solution to the problem;
> 3) I implement the solution;
> 4) I evaluate the solution;
> 5) I modify my ideas and my practice in the light of the evaluation.

Hopkins (1993) contains a useful survey of several models of action research and concrete advice on how to develop a focus for classroom research, how to carry out classroom observation, how to gather and analyse data and how to deal with ethical questions in classroom research. The book can be recommended for everybody who is interested in teacher research.

All research is guided by research questions or problems. *Finding and defining a good research question is the most important and difficult part of a research project.* It requires imagination to be able to come up with an interesting research question. In case of teacher research, the research question typically has to do with something that is closely related to the teacher´s daily work or new projects.

In the case of the TCE/TCFL, the classroom research questions could deal with at least the following aspects:
a) goals of the pilot projects
b) materials
c) methods
d) students' learning outcomes
e) students' affective outcomes (attitudes, motivation etc)
f) comparison between TCE/TCFL and "normal" classes
g) change in one's views and teaching practices
h) perception of successes and problems
i) impact on relations with colleagues
j) impact on the school
k) parents' views and attitudes
l) reflection on what was done and achieved

A review of the project reports by the participants shows that in most cases they were interested in *getting feedback from the students about what they thought of the idea of teaching content through English and what their experiences were.* In most cases information was collected through questionnaires. In some cases students kept diaries. Teacher logs were used by some participants. In many cases there were informal feedback discussions.

Another focus, though less systematically pursued, was *learning outcomes*. Some teachers did set brief quizzes or tests and used the results in student assessment, as well. More typically, teachers based their assessment of learning outcomes on students' own views and on their continuous observation of classroom activity and on students' written work.

A third question that received some attention was the *parents' interest and attitudes* towards the project. Some observations are reported also on colleagues' attitudes and support.

Reports often include comments on the problems related to the (non-)-availability of suitable materials.

A *typical format* used in the reports, which is very practical and useful, is (a) to outline the goals of the project, (b) to describe the target group, (c) to give an account of materials used, (d) to describe how the plan was implemented (often with comments on how well things went), (e) to report on the major findings, and (f) to discuss the experiment and give an overall assessment of it. In many cases teachers also say something about the future prospects.

The impression one gets on reading the reports is that most teachers were pleased with their students' motivation and with their learning outcomes. Students', as well, gave overwhelmingly positive feedback to their teachers. Undoubtedly, the TCFL pilot project was a *positive and rewarding experience to both teachers and students* and the idea worth keeping up and extending to other domains of content.

Some hints for doing action research/teacher research

Drawing on prior work, Nunan (1989) provides a useful list of points to keep in mind in doing action research. The author has selected eleven out of the original sixteen points and added some comments.

1) Get a research group together and participate yourself. Sympathetic colleagues can be of great help and support. Obviously, the intensity of collaboration may vary considerably from active sharing of tasks to sympathetic listeners.

2) Be content to start with a small group. Allow easy access for others. Invite others to come when the topics that interest them will be discussed. Obviously, in the time of modern information technology, "others" can also be colleagues working in other schools.

3) Start small. This is a very important consideration in all innovations. Many innovations have failed because of too high ambitions (Takala 1992).

4) Establish a timeline: set a realistic trial period which allows people to collect data, reflect and report over experiences. Like probably in all new ventures, action research takes more time than one expects. "Things take time."

5) Arrange for supportive work in progress discussions in the group. Again, the discussion partners can, of course, be colleagues or cooperating researchers working elsewhere.

6) Be tolerant and supportive: expect people to learn from experience and help to create conditions under which everyone can and will learn from the common effort. Naturally, someone doing individual teacher-research needs to be equally tolerant and supportive towards oneself and recognize progress, not only problems.

7) Be persistent about monitoring. For obvious reasons, the more systematic one is in collecting "data" about the project the better chances one has in being able to give a good account of what was done and achieved.

8) Plan for the long haul. Change is a process, not an event. In all new activities, one is first a novice and only through extended experience can one hope to develop expertise in the new approach.

9) Remember that how you think about things, the language and understandings that shape your action, may need changing just as much as the specifics of what you do. Previous experience (e.g. Blom, Linnakylä & Takala 1989, Linnakylä, Sajavaara & Takala 1991) has shown that research literature may turn out to be much more interesting and useful than one might think at the outset of a teacher-research project.

10) Make time to write throughout your project. Keeping a running diary (journal, log) is a very useful method to use in teacher research.

11) Be explicit about what you have achieved by reporting progress. It is highly desirable that teachers engaged in action research (teacher research) actively share their experiences with colleagues and parents.

Concluding remarks

Levine (1992) suggests that the implications of teacher research for staff development are twofold. Levine believes that the findings or outcomes of teacher research will enormously *enrich the knowledge base available to all practitioners*. Another contribution is more far-reaching, since teacher research actually can mean a reformulation of staff development. *In-service education could primarily come to mean teachers engaging in constructing their own learning within and through interaction with pupils and colleagues.*

When teachers' work is increasingly defined as finding successful teaching practices that help students to learn, as opposed to simply covering the prescribed curriculum, the educational system as a whole and individual schools will need to support teachers' examination of their current practices and a continuous search for better ways of teaching. *The TCFL concept provides one option in this search for developing schools that are responsive to the challenges that their changing contexts set for them.*

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TEACHING CONTENT THROUGH A FOREIGN LANGUAGE IS A MATTER OF SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT

1. Language learning as learner growth

Language learning can be seen as learner development in three interrelated areas of knowledge, skills and awareness:

(1) **personal awareness**: self-concept, self-esteem and collaboration
(2) **awareness of learning processes**: control of the process
(3) **task awareness**: knowledge of the subject matter to be studied

These areas can be seen as the three angles of a triangle that constitutes the notion of school learning as learner education, as shown in Diagram 1.

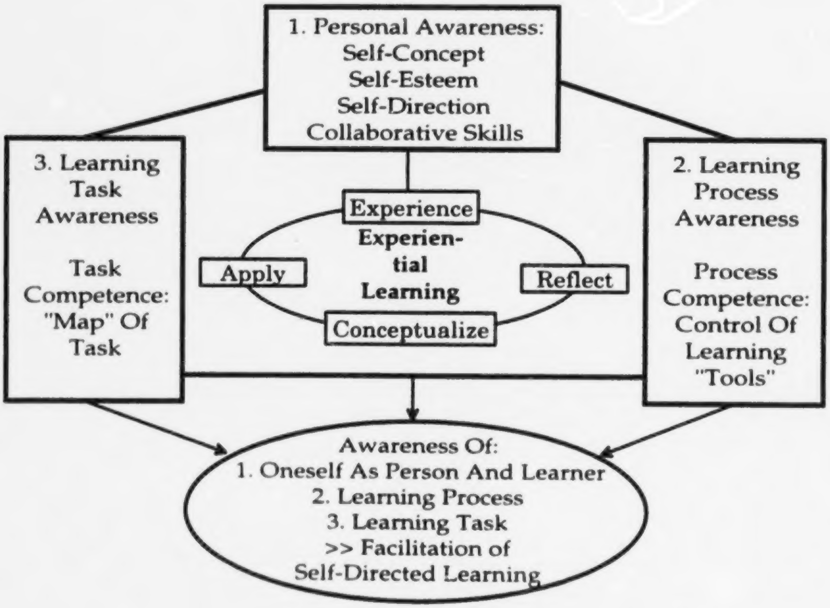
1. Personal Awareness:
Self-Concept
Self-Esteem
Self-Direction
Collaborative Skills
3. Learning Task Awareness
Task Competence: "Map" Of Task
2. Learning Process Awareness
Process Competence: Control Of Learning "Tools"
Experience
Experiential Learning
Apply
Reflect
Conceptualize
Awareness Of:
1. Oneself As Person And Learner
2. Learning Process
3. Learning Task
>> Facilitation of Self-Directed Learning

Diagram 1. School Learning as Learner Education.

Developing the learner's awareness on all of these aspects is suggested as a way of facilitating so that the learner may become a more competent person and a more competent learner. Such a learner can assume an increasing responsibility for his own learning and the learning of others in the social context. Learning along the lines suggested by experiential learning theory is proposed as a possible mode of learning within the triangle. The approach emphasizes the need to reconcile intuitive experiences of subject matter learning with various ways of conceptualizing them by reflective processes (cf. Kolb 1984; Kohonen 1987; 1991; 1992a,b; 1993; Kohonen, Folland and Taivalsaari 1993; Salmon 1988; Robertson 1988).

Clearly differentiated personal awareness, self-concept and self-esteem are necessary for the development of self-directed, autonomous learning. Autonomy is essentially a capacity for detachment, critical reflection, decision making and independent action (Little 1991). Self-direction describes an attitude to learning, where the learner assumes increasing responsibility for the decisions concerning his learning but does not necessarily undertake the implementation of all of those decisions alone. There are various degrees of self-direction depending on the learner's attitude and ability to organize and manage his learning. There is thus a continuum between other-directed and self-directed learning involving a range of options between the extremes. To the extent that the learner is willing and able to undertake learning tasks without direct teacher (or learning material) control he displays various degrees of autonomy.

Autonomy thus includes the notion of interdependence, that is, being responsible for one's conduct in the social context. We need to be able to cooperate with others and solve conflicts in constructive ways, through negotiations and open, undominated discussions between equals. Autonomy entails a significant measure of independence from external control and thus a willingness and ability to make up one's mind about what is right or wrong. It is basically an ethical concept that is part of the individual's moral growth. Being an autonomous person means respecting one's dignity as a moral person and valuing others by treating them with dignity. As the well-known "Golden Rule" of ethics puts it, we have a duty to accord others the same kind of treatment we expect them to accord us. The development of autonomy is consequently a matter of both personal, social and moral education.

The learner's self-esteem and his view of himself as a person and language learner are important characteristics that correlate with successful foreign language learning. Language learning requires persistent efforts, an ability and courage to cope with the unknown, to tolerate ambiguity and, in a sense, to appear childish and make a fool of oneself when making mistakes. A person who is ready to accept with tolerance and patience the frustrations of ambiguity is in a better position to cope with them than a learner who feels frustrated in ambiguous situations. Such tolerance is particularly necessary in the early stage of foreign language learning, which is bound to involve unpredictability and novelty because of the new linguistic system. New learnings and understandings are always potentially threatening. Confident persons have the advantage of not fearing unfamiliar situations or rejection as much as those with high anxiety levels, and are therefore more likely to take risks and try new and unpredictable experiences. This is particularly relevant in the contexts where the second language is used as the medium for learning increasingly demanding contents through the new language (Kohonen 1992a; 1993).

2. Awareness of oneself as a person and learner

In order to promote the learner's personal growth as an integral part of the pedagogical design for school learning, the teacher might consider the following kinds of questions to review his or her educational thinking and classroom practices (Kohonen 1992b):

- **responsibility:** to what extent do learners assume responsibility for their own learning? Are they willing to take action in order to learn?
- **ground rules:** are classroom rules established together and observed consistently?
- **learner support groups:** are learners encouraged to help and respect each other? Do they work together cooperatively?
- **focus on the positive:** is there a recognition of positive growth and strengths (rather than giving feedback on shortcomings and weaknesses)?
- **reflection on social learning:** to what extent are the collaborative skills of group participation discussed and taught explicitly?
- **"high expectations":** are learners encouraged to stretch to higher levels of achievement? To what extent and how are learner initiative and risk-taking encouraged?
- **support:** to what extent do learners feel that they get support? Do they feel that they are listened to seriously?
- **personal strengths and resources:** to what extent does the teacher promote a belief in the capacity of each learner to learn and progress? Do learners set goals for both personal growth and cognitive development?
- **recognition and feedback:** do learners get recognition for good work? Do they receive information on the development of their competence? Is the information descriptive of the progress (rather than evaluative)?

- **perseverance:** are learners willing to persevere in their learning efforts? Do they get encouragement for this? How secure do they feel in the classroom?

These questions invite attention to the importance of intrinsic motivation in school learning. Learners are encouraged to see themselves as increasingly competent and self-determined, assuming an increasing degree of responsibility for their own learning. Intrinsic motivational factors are generally connected with the following properties:

- they satisfy needs at higher levels of needs hierarchies, such as belonging, acceptance, satisfaction from work, self-actualization, power and self-control
- they manifest themselves primarily in the form of feelings, e.g. feelings of success and competence
- they are connected with work, involving feelings of relevance of work, satisfaction derived from work, feelings of progress and achievement, and feelings of growth as a person.

By designing learning experiences that can promote such feelings it is possible, at least to some extent, to enhance the learner's feelings of self-direction (Kohonen 1992a,b).

3. Awareness of the learning task and processes

The learner's awareness of the learning task can be seen as a map of the task. To use a familiar analogy from orienteering, this knowledge can be compared with the topographic map of the terrain. To be able to use the map one has to possess a sufficient knowledge of the topographic symbols and be able to match the map with the surrounding terrain. Equipped with such a map, the necessary literacy and a compass, it is safe to explore and enjoy an unknown terrain and find one's way properly.

In learning a foreign language, it is helpful for the language learner to know the "terrain" of the second or foreign language: what elements there are, how they are interconnected and patterned, what combinations are possible and likely to occur, what are frequent, and what similarities and differences there are between his native language and the target language. Such information will create order out of the seemingly chaotic primary data that the learner has to confront when dealing with the new language. Order and structure, in turn, will create predictability and thereby facilitate the processing task as the learner can make heuristic guesses of the message form and content. An awareness of the task can function as a framework to which he can integrate new learnings and thus feel safer when confronting new language elements. He can feel that he masters, at least to some extent, the unknown terrain that he is entering (Kohonen 1992a,b).

Involvement of the learner in the task at hand is necessary for effective learning. Learning materials and tasks do not as such guarantee anything; an equally important question is what the learner does with them. It is important that the learner **does** something to the input so that the output becomes his own and has a personal meaning for him, no matter how modest such modifications or productions are in the beginning. An input which is not worked on by the learner has not much subjective meaning for him. It does not turn into a real output. It could be rather described as "throughput" - an output which is nothing but the unmodified input and does not touch the learner inside. A meaningful output is thus based on an input which is digested and somehow modified by the learner and thereby becomes his own. This is a matter of the quality of internal processing.

It is thus necessary to pay conscious pedagogical attention to the quality of both the learning tasks and the learning activities. Learning tasks can be designed so as to promote learner development in accordance with the desirable goal orientation. When designing the learning tasks, the teacher can pay attention to two things at the same time (Kohonen 1992b):

- **content**: what kinds of material the learner works with, and
- **process**: how he is guided to work on it

In doing so, he or she may find the following kinds of questions helpful:

- **aims and tasks:** who sets the aims, chooses the tasks and decides on the contents and modes of working on them? How relevant and interesting tasks do learners have?
- **monitoring:** to what extent can learners design their own tasks and suggest ways of evaluating their performance?
- **involvement:** how actively are learners engaged in the tasks? Do the tasks pose intellectual challenges? Do they involve risk-taking? Do they involve unanticipated, new solutions?
- **cooperation:** do learners work together to solve tasks, setting objectives and planning the work together?
- **reflection:** do the learners evaluate the outcomes and the process together?

- **awareness:** do tasks promote an awareness of the learning processes? Do they give opportunities for identifying strategic options and trying them out?
- **understanding:** to what extent do learning tasks promote a cumulative understanding of the subject matter being studied?
- **continuity:** to what extent do the tasks promote continuity of learning experience? Do they make use of previous learning as a tool of new learnings?

4. Cooperative learning: possibilities and challenges

Cooperative learning, working responsibly together towards group goals, provides important pedagogical ways of promoting learner autonomy. Heterogeneous cooperative learning teams can be a good environment for discussions about learning contents and processes, giving learners opportunities to compare and contrast each others' preferred or habitual ways of learning and to gain a deeper understanding of the processes in so doing.

The work in cooperative learning teams is structured so that there is positive interdependence among the members in the group: the learners feel that they work together for mutual benefit. Positive interdependence needs to be structured carefully in order to encourage all group members to work to their full capacity. In a well-functioning cooperative group there is a sense of joint responsibility where learners care about and get committed to each other's success as well as their own; a sense of "sinking or swimming together". A team environment where learners celebrate each other's successes and provide assistance and help to each other is likely to promote more positive peer relationships, social support, and, partly for that reason, higher self-esteem and academic achievement. Social support is especially beneficial for learning complex materials more thoroughly. The following five principles are necessary for successful cooperative learning (cf. Johnson *et al.* 1990; 1991):

(1) **positive interdependence**, a sense of working together for a common goal and caring about each other's learning;
(2) **individual accountability**, whereby every team member accepts that he is in charge of his own and his teammates' learning and makes an active contribution to the group. Thus there is no "hitchhiking" for anyone in a team; everyone is there pulling his or her own weight;
(3) **promotive face-to face interaction**, where learners explain, argue, elaborate and tie current material with what they have learned previously;

(4) **collaborative skills**, involving an explicit teaching of appropriate leadership, communication, trust and conflict resolution skills so that the team can function effectively;
(5) **group processing**, whereby the teams periodically assess what they have learned, how well they are working together and how they might do better as a learning team.

Cooperative learning teams can provide an effective context for the development of new understandings. Learner talk can be harnessed to the exploration of dawning understandings and new learnings, producing at its best something quite different from traditional classroom discourse. In an affirming and encouraging small group, learners feel free to talk in provisional, exploratory ways. They speak tentatively, trying out their ideas on each other. As there is no need to defend opinions or pretend certainties that are not felt, the mode of learner talk can be one of "perhaps", voicing out uncertainties and trying out rudimentary ideas, as pointed out by Phillida Salmon (1988, 81).

5. Implications for evaluation: towards portfolio assessment

Evaluation can be defined as a systematic collection and analysis of all relevant information necessary to promote the improvement of a curriculum, and assess its effectiveness and efficiency, as well as participants' attitudes within the context of the particular institution (Brown 1989). For these purposes we need both process-oriented and product-oriented means of evaluation. Process evaluation is an integral part of the learning process, providing information to

- the **teacher** about the progress of individual learners (in terms of the subject matter learning, personal growth, learning skills and collaborative skills), helping him to plan instructional interventions.
- the **learner** about how he is progressing (in terms of both content and process), helping him to take charge of his own learning.

Product evaluation, on the other hand, refers to the summative performance testing, aimed at gauging the learner's knowledge and skills in terms of criterion-referenced descriptions of levels of attainment (for language attainment, cf. Carroll and West 1989). The tests can be administered by the teacher as classroom tests, by educational authorities for purposes of evaluating the curriculum, or for placement or selection purposes. Obviously, both kinds of evaluation are needed for different purposes in the total educational setting. However, it seems that more professional thinking needs to be devoted to process evaluation since it can have a powerful shaping effect on the ongoing learning process (cf. Kohonen 1989).

It is well-known that anticipation of evaluation procedures has a backwash effect on learning, both in terms of contents (what to learn) and processes of learning (how to organize knowledge in memory; how to guide student learning). Evaluation can thus affect both the quality and quantity of learning outcomes. Evaluation can be seen as a mirror of the learning goals and objectives, measuring the degree to which they were achieved. It is therefore advisable to keep asking what we are aiming at in school because this also indicates what needs to be evaluated. If we regard self-directed learning as an integral part of the learning outcomes, our evaluation procedures might help the learner to focus on the following aspects of learning that promote such a goal orientation (Kohonen 1992b):

- **self-awareness:** how does the learner feel about himself as a person? To what extent does he feel self-reliant and competent?
- **role:** how does he see his role as a learner? To what extent does he feel in charge of his own learning?
- **monitoring:** to what extent can he monitor his learning, both alone and in small learning teams?
- **self-organization:** to what extent can he organize his knowledge of learning contents and processes?
- **self-assessment:** to what extent can he assess his own learning?

These questions suggest the importance of a reflective process evaluation by the learner himself. Such process evaluation can be carried out well in cooperative learning groups in which learners are asked to reflect on what they have learned, how they have learned, how they have worked together, and how they might improve their work. By learning to capture salient aspects of their own learning, learners can become more informed and thoughtful learners. Reflective self-assessment is thus seen as way to continue developing as a person, as a learner and as a group member.

The learner can organize his achievements, plans, reflections, observations and work samples in what is called a **portfolio**. A portfolio is a purposeful collection of learner work that exhibits his efforts, progress and achievements (cf. Wolf 1989; Paulson *et al.* 1991). In the course of learning the portfolio becomes a kind of autobiography of the learner containing the following kinds of documentation (Kohonen 1991):

- **authentic work samples:** what the learner has actually done, with reflections on the progress evident in the samples

- **learner reflections** on his learning processes (learning diaries)
- **records of achievement** in terms of criterion-based descriptions, including self-assessments of the results of his efforts.

The advantages of portfolio assessment go far beyond evaluating learner performance by product-oriented tests. Portfolio assessment can help learners to:

- diagnose their own learning strengths and weaknesses
- internalize criteria of acceptable performance
- become more independent learners
- see their present stage in relation to the level they wish to attain
- analyze their needs, set aims, define objectives, plan work, find materials and monitor the process
- acquire social and communication skills: negotiating with peers, solving conflicts
- increase their awareness of learning: talking about learning, comparing own understandings and strategies with those of peers, and seeing new perspectives and possibilities to grow as a learner.

Portfolio assessment can also improve the learning atmosphere by introducing a shared management of learning and increasing mutual trust and partnership among learners and teachers. It will increase the learner's involvement, his responsibility of and ownership for his learning. In an important sense, learning remains imperfect until the learner is capable of assessing both what he has learned and how he has done it. Such an awareness is a key for the development of self-directed learning. It can also open an important avenue for enhancing the learner's self-concept and self-esteem as a growing person (cf. Kohonen 1991).

6. Language learning as school development

Teaching content in a foreign language and aiming towards self-directed learning in so doing will necessarily involve a clear change of school culture toward colleagial collaboration of teachers. Professional growth is facilitated in an atmosphere of support and trust whereby teachers see their colleagues as resources for each other. The in-service programs need to extend over several years and involve the whole staff, or at least most of the staff members. Teachers need to work together in colleagial study groups discussing about their educational views, beliefs and values. They need to study educational philosophy and research-based knowledge about teaching and learning. At the same time they observe what they are doing in their classes and collect and analyze site-specific information in order to see what is actually happening in school. On the basis of their reflections, observations and findings they plan and carry out further instructional measures.

An essential element in colleagial staff development programs is networking teachers, administrators and researchers for mutual benefit, in an atmosphere of learning together. The ultimate aim of such programs is to raise the outcomes of learning in terms of a wide goal orientation of school learning as learner education as discussed in this paper: subject matter knowledge and skills, personal growth, and learning to control the processes of learning, i.e., learning to learn. This goal entails a long-term commitment of the staff to a fundamental restructuring of school as a workplace requiring changes of all parts of the educational system, from learners and teachers to school administration (cf. Fullan and Stiegelbauer 1991; Joyce (ed) 1990).

In the light of this discussion, then, developing responsible and autonomous learners is a matter that goes far beyond the traditional language teaching objectives. No single subject alone can do much to promote such a goal within the limited amount of curriculum time per week. Education to enhance the learner as a wholistic person is therefore part of a more general concept of values education in school. Values education is, in any case, an inherent part of any classroom work in any subject where teachers and learners meet each other. This is an ethical question of the respect for the human dignity of all participants in the community. It is a matter of the different teachers committing themselves to work together in order to improve the educational atmosphere of the whole school, working towards a collaborative school community (Kohonen 1993).

It is in such a colleagial school culture of mutual support, risk-taking and exploratory attitudes that the long-term educational outcomes can be developed towards the notion of school learning as learner education, aiming towards facilitating increasingly self-directed learning. University educators can be involved as partners and facilitators in the processes by helping teachers to get access to the necessary knowledge and providing opportunities for continuing in-service education. Involvement in the shared enterprises will also open new interesting research avenues. These ideas, then, pose new challenges on teacher education. In preservice programs teachers need to be initiated to the role of the teacher as an ethical professional. Such contents need to be a central component in the in-service programs for experienced teachers as well, as has been the case in the Jyväskylä Continuing Education Centre's teacher development programme for teaching content through English.

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DEVELOPING LANGUAGE TEACHING IN FINLAND: WHERE DOES CONTENT-BASED LANGUAGE TEACHING FIT?

(Presentation at the orientation seminar of the first national TCE Programme, April 4, 1992)

1. Brief historical sketch

Education in a second or foreign language is not a new phenomenon. Similarly, bilingualism and multilingualism have undoubtedly existed at all times whenever different language groups have been in contact with each other. In the Western world, systematic language teaching as well as teaching in a foreign language started in ancient Rome. When the expansion of the Roman empire made Greece dependent on Rome (c. 200-80 B.C.), many learned Greeks became tutors to the children of Roman nobility, either as slaves or in a freer position. Rome generally recognized the superiority of Greek culture and learning fluent Greek was considered a mark of an educated person. Greek tutors often spoke only Greek, and thus the form of teaching resembled immersion teaching or content-based teaching.

When the school system was developed in Rome, learning Greek and studying Greek literature was an essential part of the curriculum. It was also common for noble young men to be sent to Greece to finish their education in famous Greek schools. Thus, student exchange and study abroad are not new things either. They were there from the very beginning of organized instruction in the west.

It is also common knowledge that dozens of generations in medieval times went to school and university where the language of instruction was Latin. For centuries, Latin was the lingua franca of the church, the state, the school, research and high culture in general. It was common practice to punish children if they were caught speaking some other language than Latin.

With the emergence of the nation state and a growing sense of nationalism, and as primary education, "popular education" began its slow expansion, education in the mother tongue became more common and books began to be printed in the vernacular. However, the standard language was often the language of the capital region and many children spoke a marked dialect. In several bilingual or multilingual countries the vernacular language was not their first language, their home language.

Doing most of one's studies in a second/foreign language has long roots in former colonies. The educational systems in some of these new states still resemble to a smaller or greater extent those in their former imperial centres in terms of curricula, teaching traditions, textbooks and examinations. Study abroad is still a very common pattern.

Universities are a fairly recent institution in several parts of the world. Thus, for instance, in medieval Finland, it was common for young men to go abroad and study in the famous European universities on the Continent. This was, in fact, so common throughout Europe that students from a given nationality banded together to be better able to look after their interests. This led to the formation of the "nations" system, which we in Finland now recognize in the rather moribund regionally-based student organizations at universities (Finnish: osakunta, Swedish: nation).

The language of research literature has always tended to be international, first Latin and in more recent times increasingly English.

Educational institutions have, indeed, long and interesting roots.

On the basis of the above discussion we can conclude that teaching/-learning in a second/foreign language and the use of foreign languages in research publications are no recent phenomena. In fact, in a historical perspective, such practices have been the norm rather than an exception.

Since the non-use of the pupils' vernacular has typically involved political, enonomic, social and cultural hegemony - or indeed systematic oppression - it is understandable that education in the vernacular has been considered important and its large-scale implementation an important achievement. The national language and culture in the national language have typically been closely linked with nation-building and a sense of nationhood.

In Finland, equal right to public education in one's mother tongue was codified in Finland's constitutional instruments during the first years of independence. A UNESCO conference in 1953 (The Use of Vernacular

Language in Education) recommended this system very strongly. It seems likely that this question will remain on the agenda of all minorities throughout the world.

2. Directions in internationalization of education in general

There has been quite intensive activity throughout the world aimed at promoting international awareness and mutual understanding. However, this activity has not necessarily consciously tried to integrate the goals of international orientation and language learning. Among the best known concepts/movements are:

* International Education
* Education for International Understanding (and Peace)
* Multicultural education
* Area Studies
* Global studies
* Associated Schools
* Education for Global Awareness
* Education for Interdependence
* Education for Global Interdependence
* Youth for Understanding

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* ERASMUS
* COMETT
* LINGUA

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* NORDPLUS

3. Recent trends in alternatives to traditional national school systems

Since World War II, in particular, international relations have intensified dramatically in all spheres of life. Goods, services, capital, people and cultural influences have all spread across national borders more and more rapidly and to an evergrowing degree, in spite of all bureaucratic, and protectionist barriers.

In comparison to the earlier situation, where all sorts of geographic and cultural peripheries had no choice in adapting to the languages and cultures of centres, countries are now actively trying to compete in the international market place and seeking ways of coping successfully. One of the basic requirements is sufficient skills in the languages that form the hard currency of that international market. The needs of language teaching and learning vary considerably from country to country, and therefore countries understandably have made different arrangements. However, all countries face the problem of being able to participate in the intensifying international exchange.

This has led to several interesting new developments the purpose of which has been to improve the often unsatisfactory standard of language skills, even after years of systematic teaching and learning. Traditional language teaching fails almost totally with a small percentage of pupils. Formal language teaching and learning in its present form produces modest results with the majority of students. While this modest level of achievement at schools is not, by any means, limited to language learning, there is every reason to seek ways of improving the situation. A lot can be achieved by methods of teaching that build on what we know of effective learning. This is, however, not enough. When we hope to achieve real communicative proficiency, the number of lessons in traditional teaching - a few hours a week - is simply too little. We need to increase the number of opportunities for pupils to be actively engaged in meaningful contacts with second/foreign languages.

The most interesting and promising approaches in developing real communicative proficiency in a foreign language all share the view that real communicative overall proficiency can be achieved only by increasing meaningful contacts with the studied language dramatically. There are several ways of doing this.

It might be worth pointing out that whatever arrangements are made to improve skills in a second language or in one or more foreign languages, it would be courting trouble to ignore the legitimate questions that have to do with the status and fate of people's first language. This is an especially sensitive issue for all minorities, whatever the basis for being considered a minority. Nothing should be done to weaken - or even seem to weaken - the position of any languages and linguistic groups. It is up to anyone advocating arrangements that mean giving second/foreign languages a boost to be able to show convincingly that other languages do not suffer. To date, there is no evidence that modern systems would have a negative effect on pupils' first language.

I will now give a brief account of some of the most prominent ways of coping with the growing internationalization of modern life.

3.1. International Schools

Gaby Kohl (1991) has made a study of what she calls the international school system. The following presentation is largely based on her recent article.

Growing internationalization of economic, political and social relations have contributed to a notable increase in the number of international schools that cater for the educational needs of the children of highly mobile parents.

Among the first truly international schools in modern times were the International School of Geneva (École International de Genève/Ecolint) and the United Nations International School (UNIS), set up in 1924 and in 1947, respectively.
Since then, a variety of internationally oriented school types have developed:

1) International Schools proper

E.g. in Germany there are such 'genuinely' international schools in Düsseldorf, Frankfurt, Hamburg and Munich, with Stuttgart and Berlin schools in the process of being set up.

2) Internationally oriented schools

Typical of schools of this type are United World Colleges, which seek to promote international awareness. Such colleges exist in Wales (UWC of the Atlantic), Singapore, Canada, Swaziland, Italy, USA, and Venezuela. Students attending such colleges usually take the International Baccalaurate examination.

3) Private international schools

Several schools of this types can be found especially in Switzerland.

4) Overseas schools

Schools of this type are usually set up to cater for the educational needs of the children and youth of particular nationalities. There are Deutsche Schulen, French Lycées, Japanese schools, British schools etc.

5) Embassy schools

Embassy schools are a particular form of overseas schools.

6) Army schools

"Big Powers" with sizeable military troops abroad have set up schools for the education of dependents. Examples of this type of schools are British Service Schools, Department of Defence Dependent Schools (DODDS), and NATO-related schools like the SHAPE International School in Belgium with more than 2500 students.

7) National schools with international sections/complements

Examples of this kind of schools are UNESCO Project Schools, and the new Finnish IB schools.

8) European schools

These schools have been set up in the EEC countries: Luxembourg, Brussels, Varese (Italy), Mol (Belgium), Karlsruhe, Bergen (Netherlands), Munich, Culham (UK). A special objective of these schools is education for European awareness. Instruction is given in seven member languages (Language I). In addition, from grade 3 onwards, children are taught geography and history in three "complementary" languages (English, German and French).

9) Bilingual/bicultural schools

These schools are committed to promoting two languages and cultures. Such schools are e.g. John F. Kennedy School in Berlin and École Active Bilingue.

10) Company schools

Companies like Philips and Shell support schools for the children of their employees. Philips has a Regional International School in Eindhoven and Shell has several Royal Dutch Shell Schools worldwide.

11) Missionary schools

Most schools of this type are located in developing countries and are typically denominational. Some have developed into international schools.

Statistics on international schools

Period of founding	Number	%
Before 1859	2	1,3
1860-1869	1	0,6
1870-1879	2	1,3
1880-1889	5	3,2
1890-1899	6	3,8
1900-1909	3	1,9
1910-1919	2	1,3
1920-1929	7	4,5
1930-1939	4	2,6
1940-1949	8	5,1
1950-1959	25	16,0
1960-1969	41	26,3
1970-1979	34	21,8
1980-1989	16	10,3
Total	152	100,0

Region	Number/ schools	Number/ students
Africa	180	81 249
Asia	117	48 173
Australia	34	10 708
Europe	242	93 837
North America	35	16 804
South America	120	79 481
Total	728	330 252

Almost one third of these schools (28,2%) offer the International Baccalaureate alone or together with some other certificate.

3.2. Language Immersion

Since there will be several speakers addressing the topic of immersion, it will be sufficient to say that, like so many innovative ideas in language teaching, the initiative was taken in Canada.

Parents and children representing the strong majority language have considered their home language so strong that giving the second language a much stronger role in education would not weaken the pupils' first language nor lower the standards in learning other school subjects. Large-scale immersion seems to be especially suitable in such a situation where the language majority enjoys a strong position. There are several varieties of immersion: total/partial, early/late.

The objectives of the immersion programmes are generally considered to be as follows:
a) to give the pupils participating in the programme a functional oral and written proficiency in a second/foreign language
b) to promote and maintain normal progress in the first language
c) to guarantee the standard of knowledge in other subjects that is expected in "traditional" instruction
d) to help pupils understand and appreciate the linguistic group whose language is the immersion programme language as well as its culture without in any way weakening the pupils' identification with their own home language, their own cultural background or their appeciation of them.

The immersion language is used as the language of instruction, for interaction, for teaching content knowledge so as to make their skills resemble skills in L1.

3.3. Content-based language teaching

The starting point of content-based language teaching, like that of the immersion approach, is based on recent research on language acquisition and bilingualism and on recent theories of language acquisition and learning.

There are several types of content-based language teaching, but since they will be discussed in other talks, I will only briefly say that content-based teaching generally seeks to integrate the goals of content learning and language learning. Unlike traditional language teaching, linguistic content is determined by subject content. Thus traditional language progression plays a much smaller role in the syllabus organization.

It is my personal impression, at this point, that there are ways of effecting a sensible compromise between subject matter goals and language teaching goals. By carefully selecting what content to teach to young children, it would seem to me possible to, in fact, follow a rather traditional linguistic progression. I have elsewhere sketched this theme. Even very preliminary reflection seemed to indicate that the integration of the two domains appears fairly easy.

4. Developments in Finland

The idea of integrating content teaching and language teaching has been brought up in Finland over the past several years. The most consistent spokesman that I know is Mr Jaakko Itälä, a prominent figure in Finnish educational planning and debate. But even Mr Itälä never promoted the idea systematically.

International influences, especially news about the Canadian immersion projects, gave a new impetus to the idea. The Ministry of Education set up a working party in 1987 that submitted its report in 1989 (OPM 1989:47). The working party proposed that more international schools should be set up in Finland and that classes should be set up where instruction is totally or partially in a second/foreign language. It was suggested that such instruction should be available at least in university towns. The group suggested that it would be up to the community to set up such programmes, without need to apply for official permission. Subsequently, most of the group's proposals have been codified in bills passed by the Parliament or statutes issued by the Cabinet.

Another commission, chaired by Professor Christer Laurén, who has championed the immersion approach in Finland, has recently finished its deliberations and is going to submit its recommendations to the Minister of Education in the near future. The commission will make several proposals how to develop language teaching in Finland. If implemented, language teaching in Finland will undergo quite a number of changes, which the committee feels are needed and will definitely make language learning more effective in Finland. At this point, it is possible to say that one of the key recommendations in the unanimous report will be to apply ideas developed in the immersion approach and the content-based language teaching approach in Finland. At the moment there are four upper secondary schools that have a programme that leads to the International Baccalaureate and two more schools that will start in the near future.

Another interesting and welcome development is the alternative syllabus that has been prepared for those pupils who are bilingual in Swedish and Finnish.

At the moment, there is only one early immersion program in operation in the city of Vaasa. From the very beginning, close follow-up has been linked with the Vaasa project. We will hear about the project later today. Similar, though not necessarily identical, activity is going in in some schools in Finland: in Turku, Rovaniemi, Mänttä, Jyväskylä etc.

At the upper stage of the comprehensive school the best known is taking place in Soini*. The teacher in that project is working on his Ph.D., thus exemplifying a role that is relatively little known in Finland- the role of the teacher-researcher.

In addition to the projects mentioned in the above, a lot of activity has been initiated: kindergartens and playschools in a foreign language, teachers teaching larger or smaller units in a foreign language, courses for those teachers who are interested in content-based language teaching.

Interest in increasing the use of foreign languages in our schools is growing. It is to be hoped that we will proceeed wisely: organizing training for those interested in content-based language teaching, arranging pilot experiments and utilizing their results effectively, implementing particularly the early programmes in a way that is appropriate and appealing to young children, guaranteeing good co-operation within schools so that the innovations gets full support from all the staff, etc. If we hasten to try the new ideas without proper preparation and proper support, we are bound to meet a lot of problems that might be avoided.

I would like to conclude by saying that, in my opinion, it is not necessary for teachers who are interested in content-based teaching in a foreign language to speak the language of instruction with anything like native-speaker accuracy or fluency. We know that simplified language ("motherese", "caretaker talk", "foreigner-talk", "bad/international English") helps language learning and improves comprehension. Native speakers often tend to be more difficult to understand than people who can speak the language with a fair degree of accuracy and fluency. Thus, if a teacher has a fair command of a foreign language, learns the language of classroom discourse, and takes the trouble of preparing the lessons carefully in advance, there should be no reason why he or she could not start teaching in a foreign language. My recommendation would be to proceed slowly, beginning with carefully delimited units, and expanding the content coverage over the years.

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* 1991 - 92

Another thing I would like to mention is that introducing content-based language teaching is a good opportunity to check one's pedagogical approach. For learning, it is not optimal to have teacher-talk take up most of classtime. Content-based language teaching is a good opportunity to bring into the class, videos, films, reference materials, articles from newspapers, magazines and journals, to initiate co-operative projects with foreign classes using e-mail, etc. The world is full of material that can be used in content-based language teaching. I would recommend that anyone who thinks of introducing content-based language teaching uses the occasion to introduce other pedagogical ideas that have been shown to make learning both more effective and motivating.

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KOKEMUKSIA KENTÄLTÄ

Merkonomiksi englannin kielellä

Taina Lehtonen
Kotkan Kauppaoppilaitos

Kotkan kauppaoppilaitoksen aikuiskoulutusosastossa aloitti syksyllä 1992 ensimmäinen ryhmä, 21 opiskelijaa, markkinointilinjan ylioppilasmerkonomin opinnot englannin kielellä. Opiskelijoista kolmasosa oli ulkomaalaisia; yhteensä luokassa oli viittä eri kansallisuutta. Opinnot kestävät kaksi vuotta ja niihin kuuluu kolme seitsemän viikon etätyöjaksoa.

Maaliskuussa 1993 opiskelijoiden mielipiteitä kartoitettiin kyselytutkimuksella. Kyselylomakkeessa oli yhteensä 64 väitettä tai väiteparia, joihin jokaiseen opiskelijat rengastivat mielestään sopivimman vaihtoehdon. Lisäksi oli yhdeksästä aiheesta avoimia kysymyksiä, joihin saatiin yhteensä 115 sanallista vastausta.

Kyselyn tarkoitus oli hankkia pätevää tietoa siitä, miten opiskelijat kokivat opiskeluilmapiirin luokassa, mitä mieltä he olivat opetuksesta, mitä vaikeuksia heillä mahdollisesti oli ja mitä voitaisiin tehdä toisin, paremmin ensi kerralla.

Tuloksissa oli selvästi havaittavissa seuraavaa:

1) Opiskelijat olivat erittäin motivoituneita, kiinnostuneita opiskeltavista asioista ja innostuneita opiskelemaan englannin kielellä.

2) Opiskelijat olivat aktiivisia, varmoja, sosiaalisia ja innokkaita.Luokan ilmapiiri oli kuitenkin muuttunut siitä, millainen se oli syksyllä ollut; vilkasta kulttuurien välistä vuorovaikutusta ja keskinäistä yhteistyötä oli vähemmän kuin opintojen alussa; syyksi mainittiin erittäin suuret erot opiskelijoiden englannin kielen taidoissa ja muissa opiskeluvalmiuksissa sekä puutteet informaation kulussa.

3) Opetuksessa oli käytetty melko monipuolisia opiskelijakeskeisiä ja ryhmätyötaitoja vaativia työtapoja. Opetustilanteissa keskusteltiin ja ne koettiin hauskoiksi. Monilla opiskelijoilla oli kuitenkin traditionaalinen näkemys ja odotukset, joiden mukaan opettajan tehtävä on jakaa valmiiksi jäsennettyä ja selitettyä tietoa, jonka omaksuminen olisi nopeaa.

4) Useimmat opiskelijat pärjäävät hyvin opinnoissaan. Yli puolet kuitenkin nimesi vaikeuksien syitä, joista tärkeimmät olivat opiskelijoiden erittäin suuri eritasoisuus sekä ohjeiden ja selitysten puutteellisuus.

Seuraavan, syksyllä 1993 aloittavan, ryhmän opintojen järjestelyissä ja opetuksessa on hyvä tehdä seuraavat parannukset: Ensimmäiseksi on varmistettava, että kaikki opiskelijoiksi hyväksytyt täyttävät pääsyvaatimukset. Erityisesti englannin kielen kirjallinen ja suullinen taito on testattava, sillä se on tärkein edellytys tehokkaalle ja tasavertaiselle kommunikoinnille luokassa sekä opinnoissa etenemiselle. Toiseksi opintojen alussa tarvitaan perusteellinen ja johdonmukainen perehdyttäminen ja tietopaketti, jossa on opintojen järjestelyt ja aikataulut sekä muutoksista tiedottamisen tapa, oppiaineittain tavoitteet, oppisisällöt, opetusmenetelmät, arviointiperusteet sekä tiedot yhteydenottoa varten. Kolmanneksi opettajia on kannustettava hankkimaan työkalupakkiinsa opetusmenetelmiä ja tehtäviä, jotka edesauttavat sosiaalisten ja opiskeluvalmiudellisten erojen tasoittamista ja kulttuurien välistä vuorovaikutusta. Neljänneksi, koska useimpien aikuisopiskelijoiden kouluhistoria on hyvin opettajajohtoinen, heidät on tutustutettava uuteen opiskelijoiden omaa vastuunottoa, aktiivista informaation käsittelyä ja yhteistyötaitoja vaativaan opetustapaan vähitellen ja sen tavoitteita selvittäen. Annettavien ohjeiden tulee olla selkeitä ja riittäviä.

Kokonaisuudessaan kokemukset ovat olleet hyvin positiivisia. Englanninkielisen opetuksen aloittaminen on ollut koulullemme suuri haaste. Sen suunnitteleminen ja toteuttaminen vaatii paljon yhteistyötä ja yhteishenkeä. Se kehittää koulun työtapoja ja tuo koulun sisälle käytännön kansainvälisyyttä, jota ei kirjoista ja luennoista opi. Me olemme tyytyväisiä, että olemme päässeet hyvään alkuun.

Teaching Content Through English - muutos kohtaa opettajan

Annikki Mikkonen
Keski-Suomen kotitalousopettajaopisto

Ammatillisten oppilaitosten opettajankoulutuksessa (40 ov) Keski-Suomen kotitalousopettajaopistossa opiskeltiin keväällä 1993 oppilaanohjauksen perusteita (1 ov) englanniksi. Tätä oli edeltänyt kaksi englanninkielistä seminaaria syksyn 1992 aikana. Opiskelijoiden kielitaito opiskeluvuosina mitattuna oli hyvä. Englanninkielisen toteutuksen tavoitteena oli rohkaistua puhumaan englantia, oppia vieraalla kielellä oppimista ja opettamista sekä hahmottaa opettajan työn muutosta. Seuraavat johtopäätökset perustuvat yhteisiin pohdintoihin ja kokeiluraporttiin.

Osana kokonaisuutta

Lähtökohtana vieraskielisen opetuksen sisällyttämiseen suomenkielisten opiskelijoiden koulutukseen on globaali orientaatio, muutoksen suuntien seuranta ja kiinnostus pysyä muutoksessa mukana ottaen haasteita vastaan omaa toimintaa kehittämällä ja omaa maailmankuvaa laajentamalla.

Opettajankoulutukseen sopii hyvin ns. teemamalli eli tiettyjen opiskelukokonaisuuksien opiskelu vieraalla kielellä. Ajankohta ja toteuttamistapa tulisi tällaisessa prosessuaalisessa koulutuksessa valita kasvu- ja oppimisprosessin etenemisen mukaan. Lyhyet englanninkieliset opintojaksot pidemmällä aikavälillä näyttivät tämän kokeilun pohjalta paremmalta ratkaisulta oppimistulosten kannalta kuin tiiviit periodit lyhyessä ajassa.

Opiskelijoiden kielitaito ja heidän omaksumansa opiskelu- ja vieraan kielenkäyttöstrategiat sekä heidän oma käsityksensä niistä ovat merkityksellisiä toiminnan kannalta. Opiskeluvuosina mitattu kielitaito ei takaa kykyä käyttää kieltä. Opiskelun aikana omaksuttu taustaskeema, kuten tarve olla varma ilmaisun kieliopillisesta muodosta ja sanoista sekä tarve tuntea jokainen sana tekstin ymmärtämiseksi, on vahva. Herkkyys opiskelijoiden käyttämille strategioille ja niiden mahdollinen kehittäminen yhdessä opiskelijoiden kanssa heidän itsensä hyväksymään suuntaan on keskeistä vieraalla kielellä opettamisessa.

Suunnittelun korostuminen

Suunnittelu vie runsaasti aikaa, vaatii selkeän sisällöllisen lähtökohdan ja tarpeen opiskella sekä sisältöä että kieltä. Ristiriita näiden kahden tavoitteen välillä häiritsee työskentelyä, mikä tukee vieraskieliseen opetukseen osallistumisen vapaaehtoisuutta. Autenttinen teksti luontuu aikuisopiskelijoiden opiskeluun, mutta tekstin sopiva vaikeustasoa on hyvä etsiä. Liian vaikea teksti on harvalle haaste. Havainnollistamisessa joutuu aivan uusien haasteiden eteen, luovuutta tarvitaan.

Menetelmäsuunnittelun avain on löytää keinoja saada opiskelijat aktiivisesti käyttämään vierasta kieltä. Ilmapiirillä on keskeinen merkitys.
* Yhteistoiminnalliset opiskelutavat, joissa todella käytetään vierasta kieltä, toimivat hyvin.

* Ryhmädialogi on vaativa tapa opettaa vieraalla kielellä; vain nopeimmat ehtivät keskusteluun mukaan, jos on ensin ajateltava suomeksi ja sitten käännettävä vastaus englanniksi.
* Luennointi vaatii sekä opettajalta että opiskelijalta hyvää kielitaitoa, on helposti raskasta.
* Itsenäinen opiskelu mahdollistaa eriyttämisen, mutta vaatii omavastuisuutta. Opettajakokelaat toimivat myös itsenäisissä vaiheissa vapaamuotoisina ryhminä onnistuneesti.

Opettajan kielitaidon merkitys

Opettajan on pystyttävä puhumaan englantia (tai muuta kieltä) selkeästi ja ymmärrettävästi, tunnistettava omat kielenkäyttöstrategiansa ja kielitaitonsa puutteet. Jos ryhmässä on suomea taitamattomia opiskelijoita, heikompikin kielitaito pystytään hyväksymään ja ymmärrettävyys korostuu.

Kielitaitovaatimusta korostaa se, että opettaja on malli vieraan kielen käyttäjästä ja myös kielen opettaja. Kielen opetusmenetelmiin perehtyminen ja niiden hyväksi käyttäminen sekä sanaston kartuttamissuunnitelman laatiminen ryhdistävät oppimisprosessia.

Kokeilun merkitys

Oppimistulokset sisällön osalta olivat hyviä. Englannin kielitaidon osalta mittausta ei suoritettu, mutta suurin osa opiskelijoista aikoo kokeilla vieraalla kielellä opettamista ainakin pienimuotoisesti joko välittömästi tai parannettuaan kielitaitoaan.

Opettajalle kokemuksellinen oppiminen avasi uutta näkökulmaa kielen oppimiseen, oppimiseen yleensä ja opetuksen suunnitteluun oppimisen tavoitteesta käsin.

Yhteisöllinen vaikutus näkyy vieraiden kielten opetuksen arvostuksen lisääntymisenä ammatillisessa koulutuksessa, rohkeuden lisääntymisenä kansainvälisten suhteitten luomisessa, vieraskielisen opetuksen suunnittelussa ja haluna parantaa omaa kielitaitoa.

Englanninkielinen aineenopetus lukuvuonna 1992-93 Jyväskylän hotelli- ja ravintolaoppilaitoksessa

Hannele Nyrönen, Helena Rantasuo & Anita Autio
Jyväskylän hotelli- ja ravintolaoppilaitos

Englanninkielinen aineenopetuskokeilu toteutettiin oppilaitoksessamme kahdella esimiesluokalla: aloittavalla peruskoulupohjaisella ja toista vuotta opiskelevalla ylioppilaspohjaisella luokalla. Osa taloustiedon, psykologian ja viinitietouden kursseista opiskeltiin englanniksi käyttamällä vieraskielista oppimateriaalia, nauhoja ja tietokoneohjelmaa.

Koska matkailualalla kielitaito on tärkeä, tavoitteenamme oli lisätä opiskelijoiden suullisia taitoja. Terminologian oppiminen englanniksi oli toinen perustavoite. Palutteessa suurin osa opiskelijoista sanoi suullisen kielitaidon parantuneen jossain määrin. Erityisesti viinitietoutta opiskelleista noin kolmasosa ilmoitti kielitaidon kehittyneen runsaasti. Peruskoulupohjaisilla opiskelijoilla oli enemmän pelkoa käyttää kieltä ja vaikeuksia ymmärtää asiasisältöjä taloustiedosta ja psykologiasta. Siksi tulevaisuudessa lienee parasta opiskella sisältö ensin suomeksi ja vasta sitten syventää opiskelua vieraalla kielellä. Ylioppilailla on selvästi paremmat kielelliset valmiudet ja koska opiskelu oli alkanut jo vuosi sitten asiakokonaisuuksien hahmottaminen oli helpompaa. Suomenkielistä osuutta ei heidän kohdallaan tarvita.

Opettajan työtä koulussamme helpotti suuresti oppilaitoksen kannustus ja tuki. Kieltenopettajien kanssa yhteistyö sujui erinomaisesti esimerkiksi opetusmateriaalin valmistuksessa ja tarkistuksessa. Oppimateriaalia on hankittu pääasiassa ulkolaisista oppikirjoista ja ammattilehdistä. Tekstien taso oli suurimmaksi osaksi liian vaativaa peruskoulupohjaisille opiskelijoille ja vaati muokkausta melko paljon. Vuoden aikana olemme suunnitelleet englanninkielistä materiaalia myös oppilaitoksen aikuiskoulutusosaston kursseille.

Tulevaisuudessa kokeilu jatkuu näillä ryhmillä ja englanninkielistä opetusta laajennetaan lyhyemmille ylioppilaspohjisille kursseille useammissa eri aineissa.

Suomea englanniksi ammattikoulussa opiskeleville ulkomaalaisille

Matti Palm
Jyväskylän ammattioppilaitos

Raportti on tehty Jyväskylän ammattioppilaitoksessa, ja sen kohteena ovat olleet koulun ulkomaalaisopiskelijat. Menetelmänä on ollut haastattelututkimus, jonka runko on laadittu osallistuvan havainnoinnin (participant observation) perusteella. Kysymykset on muotoiltu opetuksen ja kommunikoinnin myötä esiintulleiden tilanteiden pohjalta. Koska tilastollinen merkitsevyys on pieni (5 opiskelijaa), tulokset ovat lähinnä suuntaa-antavia.

Tutkielma jatkaa maassamme käytyä keskustelua suomen kielen opettamisesta ulkomaalaisille. Keskeisellä suomen kielen opettamista käsittelevällä foorumilla, aikakauskirja Virkkeessä, Saima-Maija Tuomi esitti käsityksenään vuonna 1991, ettei suomen kielen opetuksessa tule lainkaan käyttää englantia, vaan on siirryttävä suoraan opetettavaan kieleen. Tämä pohdinta kuitenkin osoittaa, että opiskelijat toivovat englannin käyttämistä välittävänä kielenä opetuksen alkuvaiheessa. He katsoivat englannin olevan avuksi pulmatilanteissa, ja ajattelivat sen myös luonnostaan luovan otollisen kansainvälisyyden ilmapiirin opetukseen. Toisaalta opiskelijat toivoivat asteittaista siirtymistä pelkän suomen kielen käyttöön opetuksessa.

Suomen kielen opiskelussaan vierasmaalaiset haastateltavat korostivat ammattisanaston tärkeyttä. Toisena painotusalueena nousi esiin kielioppi, jota tulisi opetella määrätietoisesti ja johdonmukaisesti alusta pitäen. Tältä osin heidän näkemyksensä on yhdensuuntainen alan tutkijan, Maisa Martinin, havaintojen kanssa (Jyväskylän yliopiston tiedotuslehti 1990/2, 2).

Kielen opiskeluun läheisesti liittyvä sopeutuminen suomalaiseen yhteiskuntaan oli tapahtunut vierasmaalaisten opiskelijoiden osalta suhteellisen hyvin. Tosin he - samoin kuin Aija Mäkisalon haastattelemat ulkomaalaiset vaihto-opiskelijat - olivat havainneet suomalaisyhteisön kuuluvan pidättyviin kulttuureihin (non-contact cultures). (Mäkisalo, Suomalainen kommunikaatio ulkomaalaisen silmin. Pro gradu -tutkielma. Viestintätieteiden laitos Jyväskylän yliopisto, 1987.)

Suomalaista ammattikoulutusta opiskelijat pitivät tehokkaana. Kuitenkin he näkivät koulunsa liian laitosmaisena ja oppimistapahtuman liian opettajakeskeisenä.

Luovan ilmaisun kurssi lääkintävoimistelijoille (16 h)

Sirkka Turkki-Sieppi
Keski-Suomen terveydenhuolto-oppilaitos

Kurssin tavoitteena oli tutustuttaa opiskelijat eri luovuusterapioihin ja auttaa heitä löytämään omia vahvuuksiaan luovan ilmaisun alueella.

Kokeiluryhmään osallistujia oli 15 opiskelijaa, joista 5 miestä. Ryhmädynamiikka tässä opiskelijajoukossa oli tavallisesta poikkeava; miespuoliset opiskelijat olivat täysin jumittuneet yhdeksi ryppääksi, eikä heitä saanut itsenäiseen toimintaan. He olivat myös vahvasti "lihashuoltokeskeisiä" ajattelultaan ja kaikki psyykkinen työskentely näytti olevan heille vierasta.

Oppikurssi suunniteltiin pidettäväksi neljänä neljän tunnin kokonaisuutena. Ensimmäisellä kerralla esittelin kurssin sisällön ja luennoin eri taideterapiamuodoista havainnollistaen esimerkein, tutkimuksiani lyhennellen ja omista kokemuksistani kertoen. Aivan alkuun kuitenkin opiskelijat olivat piirissä esitelleet toinen toisensa. Luennoimiseen käytin ensimmäiset kaksi tuntia. Seuraavat kuusi tuntia teimme luovan toiminnan harjoituksia. Esimerkiksi:

- Jaoin jokaiselle lehtikuvia, jotka esittivät ihmisiä eri puolilta maailmaa. Opiskelijat jakaantuivat pareiksi ja toisilleen kuvaa näyttämällä kertoivat mitä kuvassa oli. Toinen kertoi - toinen kuunteli, vuorollaan.
- Jokainen kirjoitti paperille kuusi onnenhetkeä elämästään. Iso ryhmä jakaantui kolmeen viiden hengen ryhmään ja ryhmässä opiskelijat kertoivat ja keskustelivat onnesta.
- Levittelin lattialle 70 erilaista kangastilkkua 20 cm x 20 cm, joista opiskelijat valitsivat yhden miellyttävän ja yhden epämiellyttävän. He pohtivat itsekseen tilkkuihinsa ruokakunnan (siis kaksi), minkä jälkeen he ryhmässä "rakensivat" tilkuista ja niiden asukkaista sosiaalisen yhteisön, kylän ja kyläläisten suhteet.
- 1200 nappia kasassa lattialla. Opiskelijat valitsivat napin toisilleen, jokainen jokaiselle ja saatesanoin antoivat napin.

Neljä seuraavaa tuntia opiskelijat kirjoittivat suhteestaan neljään väriin ja jonkun tilakokemuksen. Viimeisillä neljällä tunnilla opiskelijat pareittain ohjasivat ryhmälle leikkejä ja ilmaisuharjoituksia.

Tämä kurssi oli kovin lyhyt. Kaikki tunnit käytettiin vain englannin kieltä. Opiskelijat joutuivat kuuntelemaan paitsi luentoa myös toistensa kertomista. Jokainen sai kertoa vapaasti omalla kielitaidollaan ja kirjoittaa tämän kurssin aikana.

Mielestäni tämä kurssi sopi hyvin TCE-opetukseen, koska jokainen voi vapasti ilmaista itseään ja sai näin harjoitusta puhumisessa, kuuntelemisessa ja kirjoittamisessa. Naisopiskelijat olivat kurssiin erittäin tyytyväisiä. Miesopiskelijat eivät välittäneet koko sisällöstä. Onneksi näin ei ole kaikilla kursseilla. Seuraava vastaava kurssi on syksyllä 1993, jota odotan ilolla.

TCE - mitä, miksi, miten?

Riitta Venola
Sisälähetysseuran opisto

Miksi kielenopetuksen pitäisi olla oma erillinen, irrallinen osa opiskelijan opintosuunnitelmissa? Kielenopetuksen ja -osaamisen myöhemmässä vaiheessa opiskelijan taidot ovat edenneet synteettiseen vaiheeseen ja hänen sanavarastonsa on laajahko, hän hallitsee kielen rakenteita, pystyy kirjoittamaan, lukemaan pitempiä tekstejä ja puhumaan vierasta kieltä, pohtimaan ja analysoimaan asioita vieraalla kielellä. Tässä vaiheessa hän tarvitsee haasteita, jotta motivaatio oppia lisää ko. kieltä ja oppia myös vieraan kielen välityksellä muita asioita, pysyisi ja kasvaisi.

TCE-kurssi avasi uusia näköaloja kielenopetuksen ja asia- l. aineenopetuksen yhdistämiseksi mielekkääksi kokonaisuudeksi. Opetus voi olla vieraskielistä jo päiväkodista tai ala-asteesta alkaen tai se voi olla osittain tai asteittain enenevästi vieraskielistä eri koulutusasteilla.

Kielenopettajana olen huomannut olevani myös erilaisten aineiden opettaja, koska kielenopettaja voi valita aiheita kielen tunneilla käsiteltäväksi hyvinkin monenlaisilta elämänalueilta. Aiheita on löytynyt kirjallisuudesta, historiasta, erityispedagogiikasta, uskonnoista ja psykologiasta. Usein aiheiden käsittely on jäänyt vain kielen tunneille. Joskus onnekkaassa tapauksessa asia on liittynyt jonkun toisen opettajan aiheeseen, tosin lähinnä sattumoisin, koska yhteistyötä ja -suunnittelua ei ole ollut tarpeeksi.

TCE-kurssi siis vahvisti uskoa siihen että opetus voi olla vieraskielistä aivan suomalaisessa ammatillisessa koulutuksessa. Tuli suorastaan halu kokeilla, miten tällainen opetus otettaisiin vastaan ja miten se onnistuisi. Yhteistyö toisen opettajan kanssa oli se keino, jolla vieraskielistä, tässä tapauksessa englanninkielistä opetusta voisi kokeilla. Kollega, joka innostui TCE-ideasta, oli kasvatusaineiden opettaja. Suunnittelimme yhdessä englanninkielisen Kasvuyhteisöt-kurssin kirkon nuorisotyön ohjaajien opintolinjan 3. vuosikurssille. Perehtymis- ja suunnittelutyö kesti syyslukukauden ajan. Ongelmallista oli löytää runsaasti englanninkielistä materiaalia, joka olisi sopivaa asian, kielen ja sen vaikeustason suhteen.

Kokemukset ensimmäisestä TCE-kurssista olivat vaihtelevia. Opetusryhmä oli kielitaidoiltaan melko heterogeenista, mikä aiheutti sen että joillakin opiskelijoilla oli ymmärtämisvaikeuksia, kun taas jotkut olisivat kaivanneet vielä vaativampaa opetusta. Omalta kannalta positiivista oli yhteistyö ja yhteisopetus toisen opettajan kanssa ja uudenlaisen ajattelutavan löytyminen vieraan kielen opetukseen. Kun vieraskieliseen opetukseen liitetään myös kielenopetuksen näkökulma, päästään opiskelijan kannalta varmasti mielekkääseen ja antoisaan lopputulokseen.

Kokemuksia englanninkielisestä kemian opetuksesta Laukaan lukiossa keväällä 1993

Pirjo Jussi-Pekka
Laukaan lukio

Seuraava artikkeli, joka julkaistiin Laukaa-Konnevesi -lehdessä 1.4.1993, on oppilaitteni Jukka Haukan ja Sami Hantulan kirjoittama. Sitä valmistellessaan he haastattelivat myös minua, joten artikkeli tuo esille sekä opettajan että oppilaiden kokemuksia.

"Laukaan lukion ykkösluokkalaisille annettiin tänä talvena mahdollisuus valita englanninkielinen kemian kurssi. Tämä kokeilu on osana Keski-Suomen lääninhallituksen ja Jyväskylän yliopiston vieraalla kielellä annettavan aineenopetuksen koulutusohjelmaa. Koulutusohjelma kuuluu lääninhallituksen kansainvälistymissuunnitelmaan. Englanninkielisen aineenopetuksen kokeilussa on mukana noin 60 opettajaa eri puolilta Suomea.

Englanninkielistä kemian ryhmää vetävän lehtori Pirjo Jussi-Pekan mukaan päätavoitteena opetuksessa on tarjota monipuoliset mahdollisuudet vieraan kielen käyttöön ja vieraskielisen materiaalin tutkimisen harjaannuttaminen. Käytännössä opetus on samanlaista kuin normaalissa kemian ryhmässä, mutta opetusmateriaalina käytetään suomenkielisen oppikirjan ohella myös englanninkielisiä monisteita, ja opetus pyritään antamaan muuten täysin englanninkielisenä.
- Tietenkin opiskeleminen on hiukan työläämpää kuin omalla äidinkielellä, mutta samalla oppii sekä kemiaa että englantia. Kurssin alussa jouduin käyttämään enemmän suomen kieltä, mutta nyt oppilaat ovat tottuneet englanninkieliseen materiaaliin ja suomen kieltä tarvitaan entistä vähemmän, Jussi-Pekka toteaa.

Oppimistulokset ovat ylipäätänsä olleet tähän mennessä positiivisia. Vaikka joskus on ollut hiukan vaikeuksia, on vieraskielistä kemiaa ollut helppo oppia. Osaltaan tähän vaikuttaa myös se, että kemian matemaattinen merkkikieli on kansainvälistä. Myönteisimmät kokemukset meneillään olevasta englanninkielisestä kemian kurssista ovat uuden alakohtaisen sanaston oppiminen ja englanninkielisen lähdemateriaalin käytön helpottuminen.

Puhutun englannin osuus tunneilla on ollut oppilaiden taholta tähän saakka vähäistä, mutta tilanne korjaantuu taitojen kasvaessa. Kaiken kaikkiaan englanninkielinen kemian opetus on onnistunut kokeilu, jonka soisi jatkuvan. Tulevaisuudessa kokeilun jatkuminen on kuitenkin epävarmaa.
- Se, voidaanko vastaavaa opetusta järjestää ensi vuonna, riippuu koulun käytettävissä olevista varoista. Kaikesta on säästettävä, joten synkältä näyttää, lehtori Pirjo Jussi-Pekka pahoittelee.
Näin lama-Suomessa tuntuu taas käyvän niin, että hyvät ideat haudataan myöhempää käyttöä varten."

Matematiikkaa englanniksi - kannattaako vai eikö kannata?

Mirja Hallikainen
Suolahden yläaste

Suunnitteletko opettavasi matematiikkaa englanniksi? Tässä eräässä kokeilussa vastaan tulleita pulmia ja vihjeitä niiden voittamiseen.

Ensimmäinen pulma on tietysti materiaali. Onneksi maailmassa on eräitä englantia opetuskielenään käyttäviä maita, joista kohtalaisen vaivattomasti saa materiaalia. Toinen tapa on kääntää itse ja tarkistuttaa käännös englannin opettajalla ("Minun englannin kirjoitustaitoni on aina ollut vähän niin ja näin, ehtisitkö mitenkään omilta kiireiltäsi joskus vähän vilkaisemaan...").

Integrointi joidenkin aineiden, kuten esimerkiksi matematiikan, kuvaamataidon, tietojenkäsittelyn ja englannin kanssa kuulostaa ihan hyvältä idealta, mutta saat unohtaa koko ajatuksen saman tien, koska yhteistä aikaa suunnittelulle saatikka toteutukselle ei tule löytymään.

Olet siis yksin opetuksesi kanssa (kollegat tietysti kannustavat, mutta jotain puuttuu). Viimein löydät rohkeutta tarpeeksi ja aloitat tunnin sanoilla: "Good morning boys and girls". Luokan hämmästys on ilmeinen, vaikka oletkin jo jonkin verran varoitellut heitä asiasta. Aloituksen jälkeen kaikki meneekin sitten kohtalaisen kivuttomasti, mitä nyt sanoja saat hakemalla hakea ja sittenkin pitää välillä vaihtaa suomeen "Mitä ihmettä on pyyhekumi englanniksi?" -tyyliin. Oppilaista suurin osa on hienosti mukana: jotkut suomentavat ohjeesi kavereilleen ja auttavat sinuakin, jotkut odottavat niin kauan, että ehdit suomentaa heille, mutta sitten on ne yrmyt takapenkissä, joiden ilmeet jo vaikuttavat siltä, että puhu mitä puhut, ei me ymmärretä kuitenkaan, eikä varmasti tehdä mitään. Näiden ystävien vuoksi innostuksesi alkaa ehkä vähitellen hiipua ja neljättä tuntia aloittaessasi saatkin jo motivoida itseäsi toden teolla puhumaan englantia. No loppujen lopuksi juntit saavat kuulla pienen nuhdesaarnan englanniksi ja sitten heiltäkin syntyy ehkä jotain valmista aiheestanne.

Tarkemmin ajatellen suurimmat hankaluudet ovat käynnistysvaikeudet. Luota itseesi ja piileviin kykyihisi, kaiva ne esiin! Toinen asia on omien taitojen lisääminen, toisin sanoen sanavarastoa on lisättävä aivan tavallistenkin sanojen osalta. Oppilaillakin saattaa olla paljon sanoja käytössä, mutta matematiikassa saattaa tulla heillekin monia vieraita termejä, joiden parissa on ehkä syytä askarrella vähän aikaa. Viimeiseksi on vielä jaksettava pitää itsensä innostuneena ja niin motivoivana, että oppilaatkin suostuvat vähitellen puhumaan englantia.

Tilannetta saattaa helpottaa huomattavasti, jos oppilailla on mahdollisuus valita haluavatko he englanninkielistä opetusta matematiikassa vai eivät. Osa ongelmistasi saattaa johtua siitä, etteivät kaikki ole oikein selvillä siitä, mitä tehdään ja miksi tai työskentelytapa on muuten heille vastenmielinen. Jos aiot vaihtaa opetustyyliä niin kannattaa valmistella oppilaita muutokseen ja sittenkin voit olla varma siitä, että vastarannankiiskiä löytyy.

Tämä kirjoitelma on syntynyt Suolahden peruskoulussa tehdyn pienimuotoisen kokeilun pohjalta. Jos olet havaitsevinasi pientä pelkoa itsessäsi niin unohda se, ja ajattele, että tämän tarinan kirjoittajakin aikoo vielä rohkaista itsensä ja yrittää, yrittää, yrittää taas.

Ajatuksia peruskoulun yläasteen 7-luokan matematiikan ja fysiikka-kemian englanninkielisestä opetuksesta Palokan yläasteella lukuvuonna 1992-1993

Anna-Maija Pölkki
Palokan yläaste

Kokemukseni perustuvat kokeiluun 23 oppilaan heterogeenisessä matematiikan ryhmässä,jossa työskenneltiin osittain englanniksi myös oppilaan ohjauksen ja maantiedon tunneilla. Ryhmä oli muodostettu satunnaisesti eivätkä oppilaat olleet voineet hakeutua siihen vapaaehtoisesti.

Opetettavaa ainesta valitessani 7. luokan kurssista tuntuivat geometria ja murtoluvut helpoimmilta kokeilukohteilta - geometria konkreettisuutensa johdosta ja murtoluvuista käytettävissäni oli helposti muokattavaa materiaalia. Vieraalla kielellä tapahtuvan matematiikan opetuksen ensimmäisenä kompastukivenä on sanaston vaikeus. Geometriassa sanastoa voi kiertää kuvallisin esimerkein ja tehtävin, murtoluvuilla laskettaessa taas mekaanisin laskuesimerkein.

Vieraskieliset tehtävät tarjoavat yhden eriyttämismahdollisuuden lisää, jos vain sopivaa materiaalia on käytettävissä. Vieraskielinen ongelma on oppilaalle houkutteleva välipala ja heikkokin oppilas huomaa pystyvänsä selvittämään jos ei itse ongelmaa niin ehkä kysymyksen.

7. luokan fysiikka-kemiassa tarjoutuu useitakin aiheita, jotka ovat ainakin osittain käsiteltävissä vieraalla kielellä. Kokeilukohteekseni valitsin veden, johon liittyvää sanastoa oppilas hallitsee ehkä tietämättäänkin runsaasti. Vanhojen aikakausilehtien avulla kuvitetut julisteet veden ominaisuuksista, kiertokulusta, käytöstä ja saastumisesta ovat ryhmätöinä tehtyinä kaikkia oppilaita työllistävää sekä kielen että fysiikka-kemian opiskelua.

Toinen aihekokonaisuus, jota opiskeltiin osittain englanniksi, oli suureet ja mittaaminen. Taka-ajatuksenani oli tutustuttaa oppilaat suureiden ja yksiköiden englanninkielisiin nimityksiin, jotka ovat perustana kansainväliselle yksikköjärjestelmälle. Näin suureiden ja yksiköiden vierasperäiset kirjaintunnukset ovat helommin mieleenpainettavissa.

Aloittelijana suurimpia ongelmiani oli materiaalien puute. Ensimmäisillä tunneilla tavoitteet tuli asettaneeksi turhan korkealle. Kuitenkin oppilaiden ennakkoluulottomuus ja spontaani innostus kannustavat kokeilemaan jatkossakin. Vieraalla kielellä tapahtuvan aineenopetuksen näen kokemusteni perusteella yhtenä opetusta monipuolistavana opetusmenetelmänä, jolloin mielessä on pidettävä opetettavan aineksen ensisijaisuus kieleen nähden.

Tiivistelmä TCE-kokeilusta Palokan yläasteella

Riitta Ritvanen
Palokan yläaste

Palokan yläasteen kolme opettajaa Juhani Kuula (maantieto, biologia), Anna-Maija Pölkki (matematiikka, fysiikka) ja Riitta Ritvanen, (oppilaanohjaus) osallistuivat vv. 92-93 TCE koulutukseen ja sen kokeiluun omassa koulussa. Englanninkielisen opetuksen kohteeksi valittiin yksi 7. luokka, jonka opettajia kaikki olivat. Luokka oli täysin valikoimaton, hyvin heterogeeninen eikä oppilailta oltu etukäteen kysytty halukkuutta tähän opetukseen. Kokeilun tarkoituksena oli saada oppilaat käyttämään englantia opiskeluvälineenä ja rohkaista heitä myös ilmaisemaan itseään englanninkielellä. Oletimme myös oppilaiden kielitaidon paranevan ja asenteiden muuttuvan myönteisiksi TCE- opiskelua kohtaan. Projekti alkoi lokakuussa ja sitä vietiin läpi lukukauden loppuun vaihdellen englannin ja suomen kielen osuutta. Oppilaille tehtiin asenne- ja mielipidekyselyitä kokeilun alussa ja lopussa. Myös vanhemmille lähetettiin kysely, ja oppilaiden englannin opettajaa haastateltiin.

Seuraavat huomiot koskevat oppilaanohjauksessa tehtyä kokeilua. Yli puolet oppilaista oli muuttanut asenteitaan TCE:tä kohtaan positiivisemmaksi. Kukaan ei suhtautunut negatiivisesti eikä kukaan oppilaista tai heidän vanhemmistaan halunnut lopettaa kokeilua. Oppilaat olivat odottaneet lähinnä sanavarastonsa kasvavan ja osa myös muun kielitaitonsa kohentuvan. Loppuarvioinnissaan suurin osa arvioi englannintaitonsa yleisesti kasvaneen, samoin maantiedossa sekä oppilaanohjauksessa, mutta ei niinkään matematiikassa. Erityisesti poikien englannin arvosanat paranivat. Englanninopettajan mukaan tämä luokka oli huomattavasti aktiivisempi ja innokkaampi englannin tunneilla kuin muut 7. luokat.

TCE oppilaanohjauksessa onnistui ilman suurempia järjestelyjä. Opetuksessa käytettiin OP07 oppi- ja työkirjaa, josta oli helppo kääntää sopivaa materiaalia ja tehtäviä. Työmenetelminä käytettiin ryhmätöitä, itsearviointitehtäviä ja luokkaopetusta. Usein annettiin pieni sanasto tehtävien tueksi. Oppilaita yritettiin rohkaista puhumaan englanniksi. Se onnistui parhaiten ryhmätöiden purun yhteydessä ja joskus keskustelussa, mutta sitä olisi voitu lisätä huomattavasti vaikkapa draaman tms. avulla, koska oppilaanohjauksen aiheet sopivat hyvin tällaiseen.

Miksi oppilaat valitsevat vieraskielisen aineenopetuksen (TCE)?

Ari Seppälä
Jämsänkosken yläaste

Useimmat koulut muodostavat TCE- ryhmät käytännön syistä vapaaehtoisuuden pohjalta. Tähänastisten kokemusten perusteella näyttää siltä, että 10 - 20 % ikäluokasta valitsee TCE- opetuksen, jos sitä tarjotaan.

Oppilaiden motiivit vieraskielisen aineeeopetuksen valitsemiseen ovat luonnollisesti hyvin monenlaisia. Tekemäni kyselyn perusteella havaitsin kuitenkin kaksi pääasiallista syytä. Ensimmäinen on luonnollinen ja odotettavissa oleva: TCE - oppilaat haluavat oppia puhumaan ja ymmärtämään englantia paremmin. Toiseksi suurin syy valintaan on kuitenkin yllättävämpi; halu uudenlaiseen opetukseen. Näyttää siltä, että kuudesluokkalaiset ovat useimmissa kouluissa jo istuneet tarpeeksi "standardiopetuksen" tunneilla, joten osa oppilaista haluaa muutosta. Tällaiset oppilaat saattavat kuitenkin olla ongelmallisia TCE- ryhmässä, sillä heillä ei ehkä ole juurikaan kiinnostusta kielen oppimista kohtaan.

Kolmanneksi suurin valinnan peruste on kavereiden valinnat. Vanhemmilla ja opettajilla on hyvin pieni rooli valintojen teossa. Joillakin paikkakunnilla vanhemmat ovat aktiivisempia suosittelemaan suomenkielistä ryhmää.

Tasoerot esimerkiksi kaikkien aineiden keskiarvoissa, eivät TCE -oppilaiden ja muiden välillä ole valtavan suuria; tutkituissa kahdessa koulussa alle puoli numeroa. Ennakko-odotusten mukaisesti TCE- ryhmän koulumenestys on keskimääräistä parempi.

Kun oppilaille kerrotaan TCE- opetuksesta, täytyy heille tehdä selväksi, että opetus on todellakin vieraalla kielellä, ja että ryhmää on myöhemmin vaikea muuttaa. Kielten arvosanat kannattaa tarkistaa. Kielissä heikkoja oppilaita voi ottaa mukaan, jos heidän motivaatiostaan on täysi varmuus.

Englantia jo ensimmäiseltä luokalta alkaen

Riitta Fakhimzadeh
Kortepohjan ala-aste

Englantipainotteinen opetuskokeilu Kortepohjan koulussa alkoi syksyllä 1991. Tuolloin 38 ensiluokkalaista aloitti opiskelun osittain englanniksi. Seuraavana lukuvuonna 21 heistä jatkoi opiskelua englantipainotteisella luokalla. Tätä Kortepohjan kielikokeilua ei voida kutsua varsinaiseksi kielikylpykokeiluksi. Englannin osuus opetuksesta on n. 25 %, kun taas varsinaisessa kielikylvyssä se olisi vähintään 50 %. Englantia käytetään joustavasti opetuskielenä musiikissa, matematiikassa, kuvaamataidossa, liikunnassa ja ympäristöopin teemoihin liittyen aina silloin kun se on pedagogisesti mahdollista.

Suomessa vieraan kielen opetus alkaa yleensä kolmannelta luokalta kun oppilailla on lukemisen ja kirjoittamisen perustaidot hallussaan. Kortepohjan englantipainotteinen kielikokeilu alkaa jo ensimmäiseltä luokalta jolloin oppilas ei yleensä osaa kirjoittaa ja lukea äidinkielellään. Tämän vuoksi englannin oppiminen alkuopetuksessa perustuu lähinnä puhuttuun kieleen. Leikit, laulut, runot ja päivittäiset rutiinit kuuluvat olennaisesti päivän ohjelmaan. Tämä on suuri haaste opettajille. Opetusmenetelmät täytyy sovittaa lasten tasolle sopiviksi. Myöhemmin kolmannelta luokalta alkaen perinteinen formaali englannin kielen opetus tukee oppimista ja varsinkin kielenhuollollista puolta. Englantipainotteisuus jatkuu läpi koko ala-asteen. Haasteet lisääntyvät ylemmillä luokilla kun luokanopettaja opettaa oppiaineista enää vain osan ja kun englanninkielisen oppimateriaalin merkitys lisääntyy taitojen kehittyessä.

Koska englannin oppiminen alkuopetuksessa perustuu suurelta osin puhuttuun kieleen on opetuskokeilumme tavoitteena tähän mennessä ollut mm. kehittää opetusmenetelmiä, luoda ja kehitellä opetusmateriaalia sekä valmistella opetussuunnitelmaa englannin opettamiseksi ensimmäisellä ja toisella luokalla.

Varmistuaksemme siitä, että oppilaat todella oppivat käyttämillämme menetelmillä päätimme tutkia heidän kuullunymmärtämistaitojaan. Halusimme selvittää ymmärtävätkö he todella sen, mitä oletamme heidän ymmärtävän englanniksi. Niinpä laadimme testin heidän tasolleen sopivaksi yhdessä Jyväskylän yliopiston tutkija-asiantuntijan kanssa. Samalla pyysimme oppilaita arvioimaan itse omaa osaamistaan testissä. Tulokset osoittivat, että oppilaat osasivat hyvin sen mitä oletimmekin heidän osaavan. Heillä oli myös varsin realistinen kuva omasta menestymisestään testissä.

Oltuaan kaksi vuotta englantipainotteisessa luokassa he pystyvät seuraamaan englanninkielistä opetusta ja osa heistä alkaa pikkuhiljaa tuottaa puhetta englanniksi. Englanninkieliset sanat ja lyhyet lauseet ovat jo alusta asti kuuluneet oppilaiden keskusteluissa.

Englantipainotteisen opetuksen toteutusta ja suunnittelua varten olemme muodostaneet ryhmän, jossa englannin aineenopettajat ja luokanopettajat yhdessä suunnittelevat opetettavia asioita. Olemme huomanneet, että ryhmässä toimivien opettajien pedagogiset ideat ja taidot ovat tulleet monipuolisesti hyödynnetyiksi. Aineenopettajien ja luokanopettajien yhteistyö on toiminut hyvin.

Vaikeutena englanninkielisessä opetuskokeilussa on ollut se, että valmista materiaalia alkuopetuksen kielenopetukseen ei ole. Oppimateriaalin hankkiminen vie paljon aikaa ja osa oppimateriaalista on jouduttu itse valmistamaan. Yksi haasteellisimmista tehtävistä on opetussuunnitelman kehittäminen sellaiseksi, että koulunsa aloittava lapsi, jolla ei yleensä ole luku- ja kirjoitustaitoa, pystyisi oppimaan ja saamaan myönteisiä elämyksiä.

Osittain englannin kielellä annettava opetus Nummen ala-asteella lukuvuonna 1992-1993

Sirpa Leinonen
Nummen ala-aste

Hämeenlinna - helmi kaupunkien joukossa - painottaa koulutussuunnitelmassaan monipuolista kieliohjelmaa. Nummen ala-asteella se on otettu huomioon siten, että oppilaat voivat valita kolmannella luokalla ensimmäiseksi vieraaksi kielekseen englannin, ruotsin tai venäjän. Lukuvuonna 1992-1993 ensimmäisellä luokalla olevat voivat opiskella oppiaineitaan myös englannin kielellä, jota pyritään jatkossakin toteuttamaan.

Ilmoittaessaan tulevaa ensiluokkalaista kouluun vanhemmat saivat mahdollisuuden valita tavallisen ja osittain englanninkielisen luokan välillä. Luokalle voitiin valita 25 oppilasta, mutta ylimääräiset siirtyivät arpomalla yhdysluokalle, jolla voi myös saada opetusta englanniksi. Valintaperusteena vanhemmilla oli, että lapsi oppii kieltä huomaamattaan leikkien avulla. Useimmiten koko perhe oli valinnan kannalla.

1. luokalla opetus perustui valtakunnalliseen ja kuntakohtaiseen opetussuunnitelmaan, ja se pohjautui ympäristöopin ympärille kehiteltyihin jaksoihin, jotka vaihtelivat kestoltaan yhdestä neljään viikkoon. Kielellinen oppiaines kytkeytyi siten tiettyihin aiheisiin. Ohjeet ja muut luokkatilanteessa esiin tulleet sanonnat annettiin englanniksi. Vieraan kielen osuus koulupäivän oppitunneista oli noin 25 %. Opetusta havainnollistamaan käytettiin runsaasti kuvamateriaalia, lauluja, leikkejä, videoita, pelejä yms. Yleensä asia esitettiin joko suomeksi tai englanniksi, mutta ei tulkaten. Ympäristöopin lisäksi vierasta kieltä käytettiin matematiikassa, käsitöissä, mutta ei uskontotunneilla.

Vanhemmat ovat olleet tyytyväisiä opetukseen. Vuoden aikana positiiviset asenteet vahvistuivat ja pelko äidinkielen heikoista oppimistuloksista poistui kokonaan. Vieraalla kielellä ei ole haittavaikutuksia muuhun oppimiseen. Vieras kieli motivoi vanhempien mielestä koulunkäyntiä. Lapset käyttävät kieltä kotioloissaan ja vanhemmat ovat tyytyväisiä ääntämiseen ja "englannin slangiin". Vanhemmat toivovat jatkoa vastaavalle opetukselle ylemmillä luokilla ja eri oppiasteilla.

Lapset olivat kiinnostuneita koko vuoden. He oppivat toimimaan englanninkielisten ohjeiden mukaan ja "kuvittelivat" vastaavansa englanniksi opettajan kysymyksiin. Oppilaiden sanavarasto - ainakin passiivinen - on melkoinen. Itseluottamus näkyi oppilaiden arvioissa, sillä 24 oppilaasta 13 puhuu mielestään englantia hyvin ja kahdeksan oikein hyvin. Suhtautuminen vierailijoihin oli luontevaa ja he kykenivät keskustelemaan englanniksi.

Luokan oppimisilmapiirin pystyi aistimaan välittömästi. Erikoistapahtumat koulussa veivät mielenkiinnon ja silloin oli hyödytöntä käyttää englantia. Jokapäiväiset sanonnat jäivät hyvin mieleen, samoin kuin rukoukset ja laulut. Vaikeasti ymmärrettävät asiat voi aluksi opettaa suomeksi ja myöhemmin keskustella asiasta englanniksi.

Englanti antaa haasteita lahjakkaille, mutta myös heikommat oppilaat viihtyvät kielen parissa, luohan se yhteenkuuluvaisuutta. Käyttäytymisongelmia ei ole ollut ja keskittymiskyky on todella hyvä. Monet opettajat ovat kiinnostuneita TCE-opetuksesta, mutta toivovat koulutusta ennen aloittamista. TCE-opetus on opettajalle palkitsevaa, koska oppilaat ovat aidosti kiinnostuneita. Se on myös haasteellista; ovathan siitä kiinnostuneita opettajat, vanhemmat ja oppilaat.

Kansalaistaidon opetuksesta englanniksi Savonlinnan normaalikoulussa

Merja Nyyssönen
Savonlinnan normaalikoulu

Savonlinnan normaalikoulu on noin 350 oppilaan ala-aste. Jyväskylän TCE-koulutus antoi lopullisen sysäyksen koulussamme pitkään harkittuun englanninkieliseen opetukseen. Tavoitteena oli antaa englannin kielestä kiinnostuneille ja motivoituneille oppilaille mahdollisuus opiskella jotain muuta ainetta englanniksi. Koska kansalaistaito tarjoaa monipuolisia, käytännönläheisiä aiheita, päätimme kokeilla sen opetusta englanniksi 10 oppitunnin verran 6-luokkalaisille.

Vieraskieliseen opetukseen osallistuminen oli vapaaehtoista ja siihen hyväksyttiin kaikki kiinnostuneet, jotka ilmoittautuivat tiettyyn päivämäärään mennessä. Halukkaita oli 17 oppilasta 44:stä (7 tyttöä ja 10 poikaa). Heidän kouluarvosanansa vaihtelivat 7 ja 10 välillä.

Aihepiireinä olivat tupakka, alkoholi ja huumeet, murrosikä sekä pakolaiset. Lähdemateriaalina käytettiin kirjoja "Kansalaistaito 6" ja "Taituri" sekä Suomen Punaisen Ristin julkaisuja. Oppilaat saivat englanninkielisiä monisteita ja apusanastoja sekä tekivät muistiinpanoja vihkoihinsa. Opettaja käytti pelkästään englantia. Oppilailta toivottiin ja heitä kannustettiin englannin käyttöön, mutta he saivat turvautua myös suomen kieleen.

Työtapoina oli normaalin opetuskeskustelun lisäksi runsaasti pari- ja ryhmätyöskentelyä sisältäen sekä keskustelua että kirjallisia tuotoksia, tietokilpailuja ja myös julisteiden tekemistä. Monet oppilaat pyrkivät käyttämään vain englantia ja vaativat sitä myös muilta ryhmäläisiltä. Siirtovaikutuksena oli nähtävissä, että oppilaat käyttivät kansalaitaidon tunnilla oppimaansa sanastoa myös englanninkielen tunnilla.

Oppilaat tekivät jakson lopuksi kokeen, joka niinikään oli englanniksi. He saivat kuitenkin vastata kysymyksiin suomeksi, jos tahtoivat. Suurin osa vastasi englanniksi. Oppilaat saivat numeron sisällön osaamisesta ja sanallisen kommentin englannin kielen käytöstä.

Oppilaille tehtiin alkukysely koskien heidän motiiveitaan sekä ennakko-odotuksiaan vieraskieliseen opetukseen nähden. Loppukyselyssä kartoitettiin heidän mielipiteitään eri työskentelytavoista ja siitä, miten he tunsivat selviytyneensä. Useimmat oppilaat olivat pitäneet opiskelusta ja tunsivat pärjänneensä hyvin. Yli puolet haluaisi opiskella jotain muutakin ainetta englanniksi. Tulokset kannustavat jatkamaan samantapaista opetusta tulevaisuudessakin.

Englantipainotteinen opetus Rauman normaalikoulussa 1992-1993

Kirsi Urmson
Rauman normaalikoulu

Syyslukukaudella 1992 aloitti Rauman normaalikoulussa englantipainotteinen 1. luokka. Tarkoituksena oli opettaa lapsia osittain englanniksi, jolloin oppilaat omaksuisivat vierasta kieltä jo 1. luokalta lähtien. Opetuksessa käytettiin apuna syntyperäistä puhujaa, joka kävi opettamassa puolta luokkaa kerrallaan kerran pari viikossa. Sama opettaja oli toiminut puolen luokan lastentarhanopettajana englantilaisessa tarhassa edellisenä vuonna, joten osa oppilaista oli hänelle tuttuja. Syntyperäinen puhuja ei käyttänyt opetuksessaan lainkaan suomea.

Luokanopettaja käytti englantia runsaasti erilaisissa luokan rutiiniasioissa, ongelmatilanteiden, selvittelyä lukuunottamatta. Päivä aloitettiin englanniksi tervehtien, laulaen ja kalenteria täyttäen. Myös välitunnille ja ruokailuun lähdettäessä käytettiin englantia.

Musiikin ja matematiikan opetus tapahtui miltei kokonaan englanniksi. Suomenkielisiä lauluja ei juurikaan opeteltu, koska joulujuhliakaan ei järjestetty koko koulun puitteissa. Niinpä lauloimmekin omissa juhlissamme vain englanniksi. Kuvaamataidossa ja käsitöissä käytettiin opetuskielenä sekä englantia että suomea aiheesta riippuen. Opettaja pyrki käyttämään englantia ohjatessaan oppilaiden työskentelyä. Ympäristöopin aihekokonaisuuksista 1-2 luokille oli valittu aihepiiriltään kielenoppimisen kannalta konkreettisimmat asiat 1. luokalla opetettaviksi. Loput jätettiin toiselle luokalle odottamaan sanavaraston kehittymistä. Ympäristöopin tunneilla pyrittiin nimenomaan englantilaisen sanavaraston kasvattamiseen, joten tuokiot oli sanastoltaan tarkkaan suunniteltu. Ympäristöopin uusia sanoja käytettiin ahkerasti myös matematiikan tunneilla esimerkkilaskuissa. Kouluvuoden aikana tuli hyvin selvästi esille kertauksen tärkeys, jos haluttiin päästä hyviin tuloksiin.

Pääperiaatteena oli koko ajan kääntämisen välttäminen. Asioita ei opetettu kahteen kertaan, vaan valittiin helpompia, konkreettisia asioita, jotka opetettiin vieraalla kielellä.

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Julkaisussa esitellään vieraskielisen ja kielipainotteisen aineenopetuksen täydennyskoulutusohjelman lähtökohtia ja käytännön kokemuksia. Raportti TCE/TCFL -ohjelmasta on englanninkielinen, opettajien kokeiluraportit ovat suomeksi.

Bilingual education, content-based foreign language instruction, and enhancement of cross-cultural knowledge and understanding are among the key focus areas in the development of the Finnish educational system in the 1990s. This collection of articles provides insight into the development of a teacher in-service development programme designed to facilitate the introduction of teaching a wide range of subjects through English in Finnish schools and colleges.

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